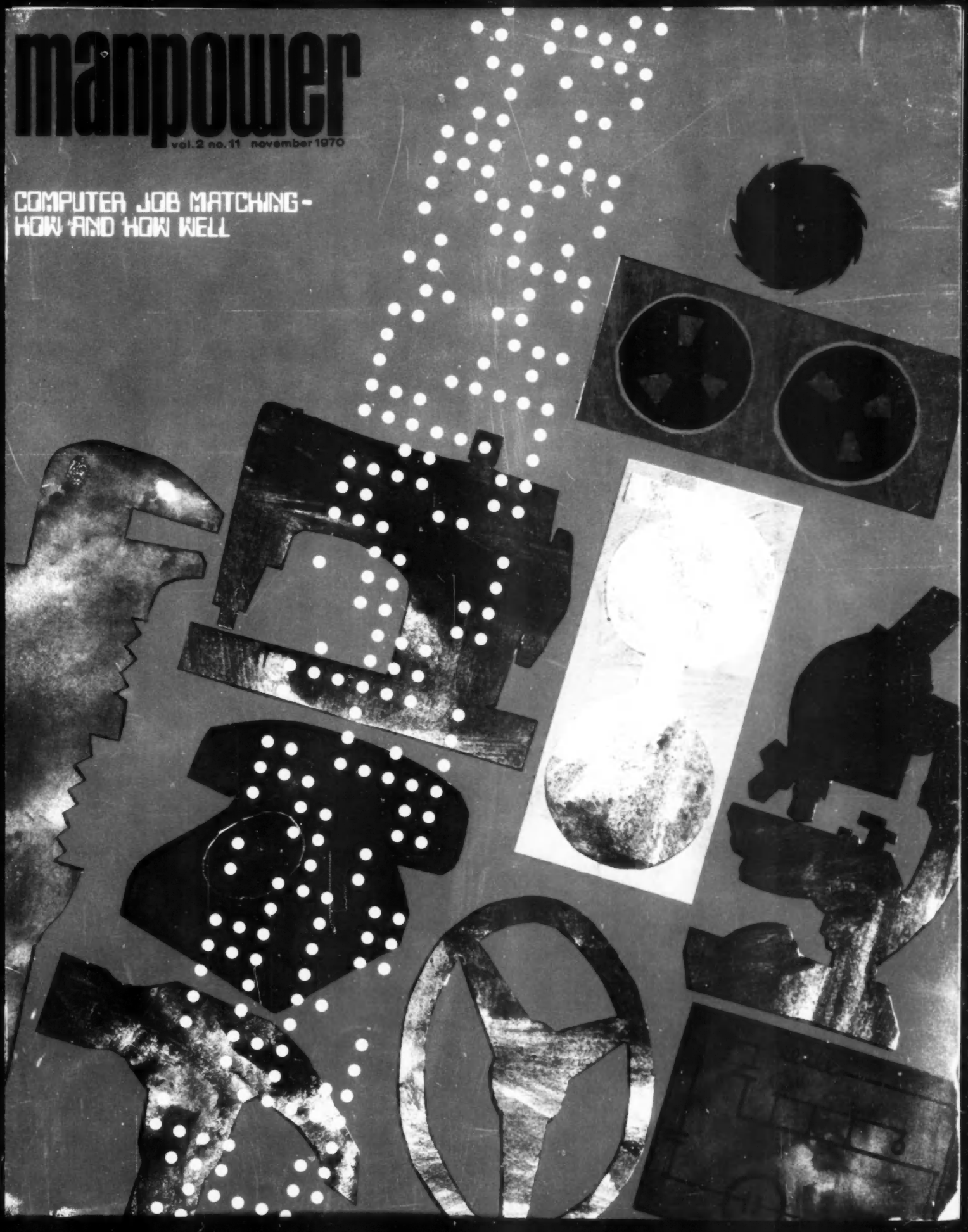
manpower

vol. 2 no. 11 november 1970

COMPUTER JOB MATCHING - HOW AND HOW WELL



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THE WHITE HOUSE

WASHINGTON

Western White House

August 28, 1970

Dear Mr. Goodwin:

I wish to thank you and your staff for the fine work that was done in connection with the Unemployment Insurance legislation I signed into law on August 10, 1970.

From the legislation's inception to its enactment, your efforts have been an example of this Nation's Civil Service at its very best. On behalf of the many millions of our fellow citizens who will benefit from this law, please accept my congratulations and appreciation for a job well done.

Sincerely,

Richard Nixon

Mr. Robert C. Goodwin
Associate Manpower Administrator,
Unemployment Insurance Service
Department of Labor
Washington, D. C. 20210

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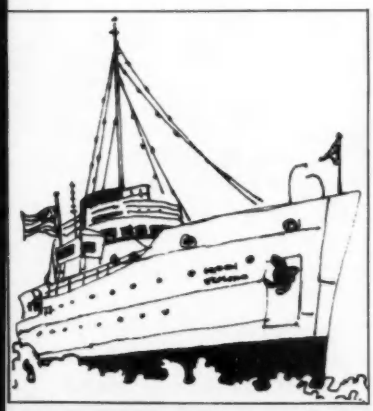

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MANPOWER Magazine is the official monthly journal of the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor. It is distributed without charge to personnel of the national and regional Manpower Administration offices and, by special arrangement, to State employment security agencies. It is also available on subscription at $7.50 a year (single copies 65 cents) from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. In countries other than the United States, Canada, and Mexico, annual subscription is $9.50. Use of funds for printing this publication approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget October 25, 1968.

Expressions of opinions in articles by authors outside the U.S. Department of Labor do not necessarily represent the views of the Department. Correspondence regarding articles should be addressed to the Editor, MANPOWER Magazine, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20210.

CHANGES OF ADDRESS: Send new address, including ZIP code, to Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. Please also include old address label from MANPOWER.

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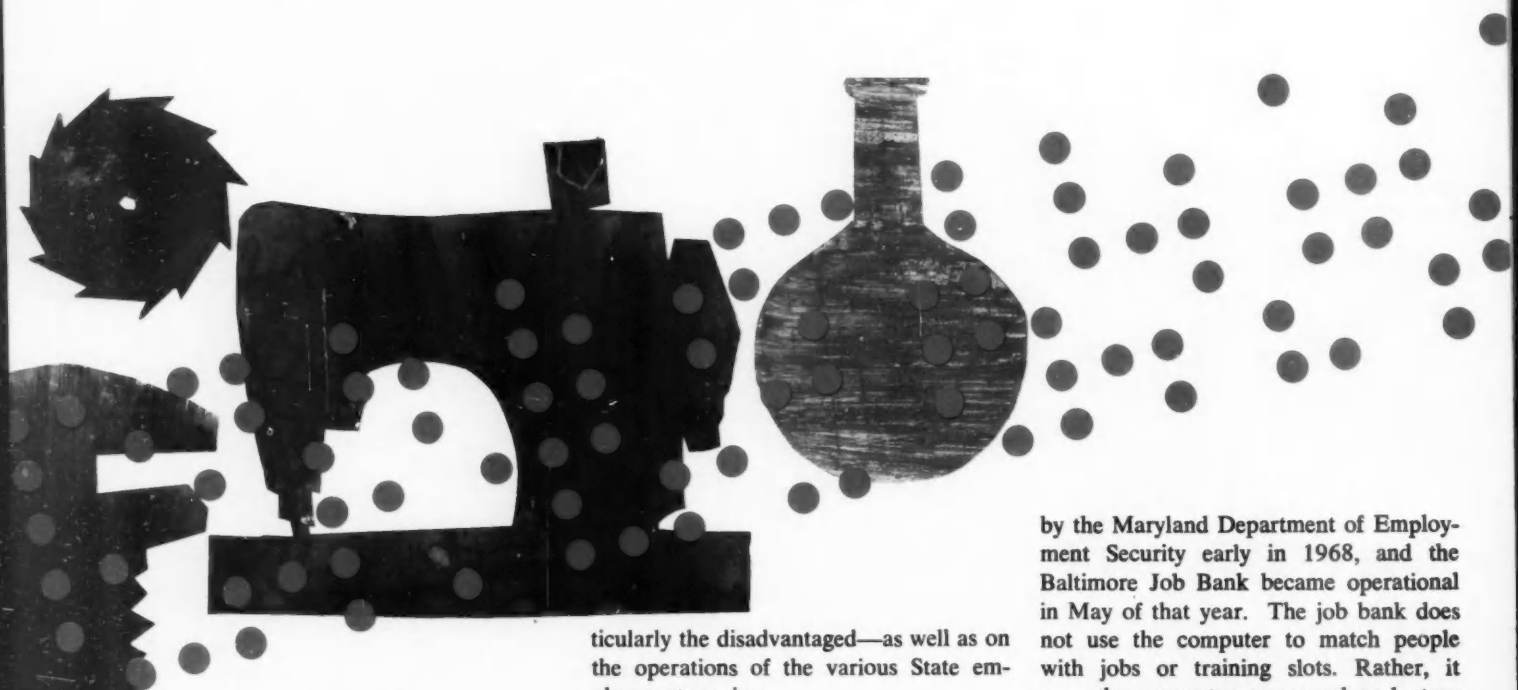
COMPUTER JOB MATCHING HOW AND HOW WELL



By GEORGE P. HUBER and JOSEPH C. ULLMAN

The 1970 MANPOWER REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT notes that improved labor market information, by facilitating faster and better matches between jobs and workers, can reduce unemployment. The implications of the continuing efforts of the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration to modernize job placement through the use of automatic data processing techniques, however, go far beyond unemployment statistics. Computerized job matching, whatever final form it takes, will have a substantial impact on employers and jobseekers—particularly the disadvantaged—as well as on the operations of the various State employment services.

To develop a national computer-aided job-matching network, the Manpower Administration undertook two major tasks. The first was the rapid and widespread deployment of a system of job banks. Job banks are not very sophisticated technologically, which made them particularly attractive as a means for making a start on job-matching systems.

Baltimore Starts Job Bank

The second task was to develop and implement several types of fully computerized matching systems so actual operating experience would be available to help determine the nature of the eventual nationwide system. Since the fully computerized system will be very sophisticated, and quite expensive, this task was envisioned as more long-range in nature.

The job bank concept was developed by the Maryland Department of Employment Security early in 1968, and the Baltimore Job Bank became operational in May of that year. The job bank does not use the computer to match people with jobs or training slots. Rather, it uses the computer to record and store brief descriptions of all job openings known to the employment service in the area.

Each evening filled jobs are deleted, new openings received are added, and the updated list is printed out in the form of a job bank book, copied, and distributed early the following morning to all counselors and placement interviewers in the employment service and cooperating community agencies. To avoid referring more applicants for a job than are desired by the employer and to keep from sending applicants to recently filled jobs, a central telephone order control unit is included in the job bank system.

As developed in Maryland, the job bank involved a fairly drastic reorganization of employment service placement operations. Previously, placement inter-

Mr. Huber is associate professor of business at the University of Wisconsin and Mr. Ullman is associate professor of industrial administration at Purdue University. Both recently completed 1-year assignments with the Manpower Administration's Division of Manpower Matching Systems.

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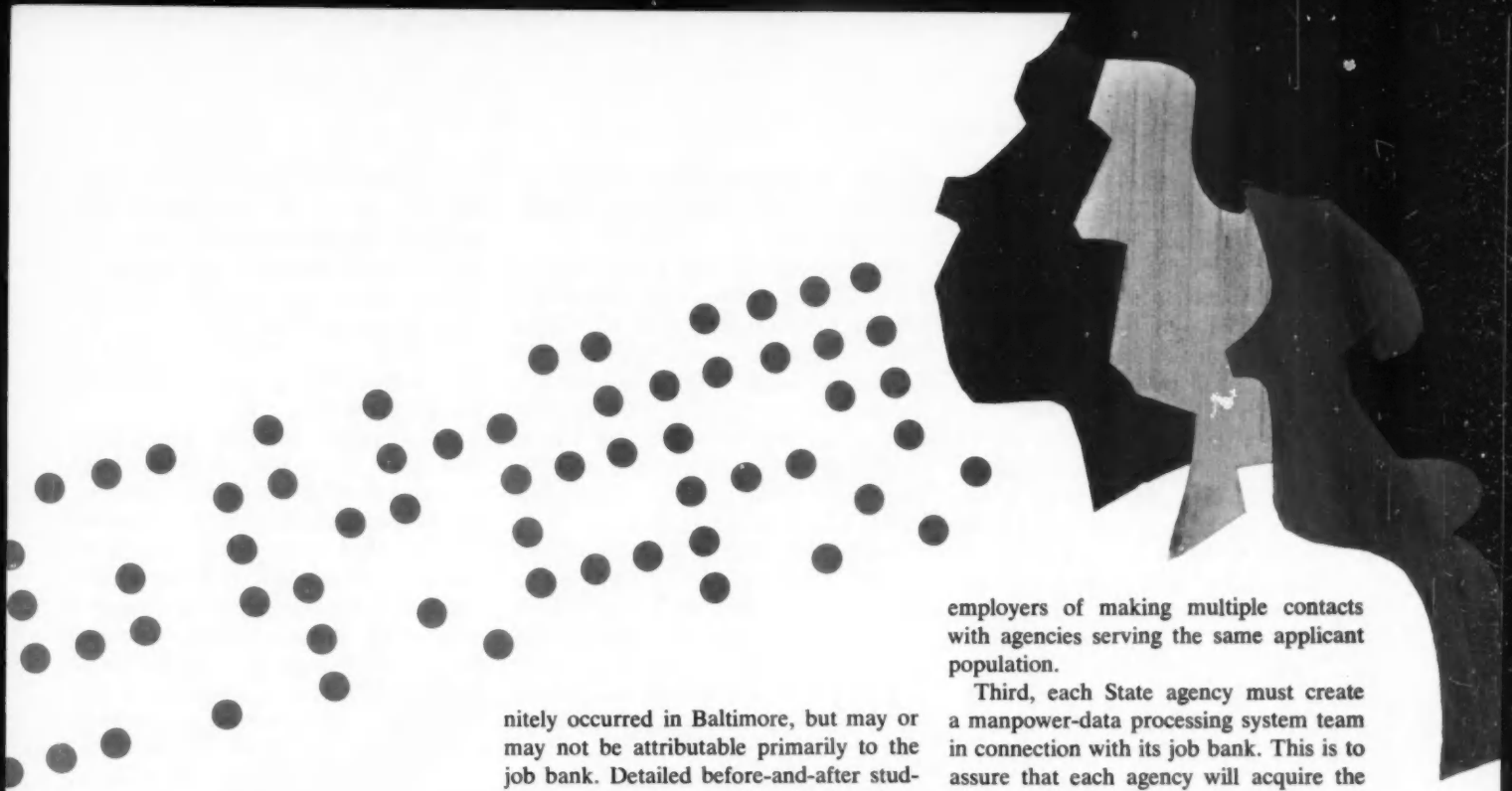

viewers both received and filled orders and usually specialized in particular occupations or industries. Now, almost all job orders are taken by a central unit whose members do not specialize in any way or make referrals. Referrals are made by placement interviewers who also do not specialize and who do not take job orders. Further, the Maryland Employment Service did not previously share job openings with other employment-oriented nonprofit community agencies. Now, all employment service job orders are made available to these agencies by means of the job bank book.

Many Variations Proposed

A third change in employment service organization usually associated with implementation of a job bank is the stationing of more placement interviewers in disadvantaged neighborhoods. Outstationing of interviewers is much more feasible now because the job bank book gives them up-to-date data on all jobs listed in the system, something that was not possible before.

Several advantages are claimed for the Baltimore Job Bank. Some of these, such as the potential for better management control associated with automatic data processing systems, are inarguable. Others, such as an increase in job orders and in placement of disadvantaged persons, definitely occurred in Baltimore, but may or may not be attributable primarily to the job bank. Detailed before-and-after studies are being conducted in all cities where there are or will be job banks to determine whether their results are similar to Baltimore's.

The Labor Department plans to install job banks in 76 of the Nation's largest cities by December 31, 1970, and as of September 1 of this year 46 were operating.

In negotiating with the Department of Labor over the specific form for their job banks, the individual State employment security agencies have proposed many variations on the Baltimore model. Some of these variations are mechanical —for example, publishing job orders on microfilm and using viewers rather than printing the orders in book form. Others are organizational — such as retaining some specialization of placement interviewers, rather than using the every-man-a-generalist approach taken in Baltimore.

Generally, the Labor Department has encouraged local variations, although three conditions have been required in the earlier group of job banks. First, order taking and placement interviewing cannot be done by the same individual. The purpose of this caveat is to prevent "pocketing" by the interviewer, that is, keeping a personal inventory of openings.

Second, all job banks must provide for participation of community agencies. This coordinates community efforts to develop jobs for the disadvantaged and relieves employers of making multiple contacts with agencies serving the same applicant population.

Third, each State agency must create a manpower-data processing system team in connection with its job bank. This is to assure that each agency will acquire the staff needed for subsequent development and implementation of a fully computerized matching system.

In the initial stage, all of the present job banks were urban and local in scope. However, some subsequently have expanded geographically, and others have plans for expansion. The Baltimore Job Bank now includes Westminster, Annapolis, Bel Air, and Elkton, extending to the Pennsylvania and Delaware borders. Connecticut and Rhode Island are implementing statewide job banks, as will several other States.

Interstate Listings Used

In addition, despite the traditional insularity of State employment security agencies, several interstate job banks are already established. The Washington, D.C. Job Bank includes local offices of the Virginia, Maryland, and District of Columbia agencies, and the St. Louis Job Bank includes Missouri and Illinois offices, which are in different Manpower Administration regions as well as in different States.

It is probable that the computers of most job banks eventually will be able to communicate with each other, although the mode of communication has not yet been determined. In professional, technical, and managerial occupations at least, in which the job market is national, it would be desirable to provide quick ex-

posure of openings throughout a large geographic area without significant delay for search within the local area. In all occupations and cities, it would on occasion be desirable to obtain prompt information about jobs outside the area. Much experimentation needs to be done to exploit the full potential of interarea dissemination of job bank openings.

Job banks do not make full use of the capabilities of the modern computer. One key capability not exploited is the computer's ability to process information at tremendous speed and consequently to consider many more possible matches than an interviewer can in a manual or job bank system. Fully computerized systems enable the interviewer rapidly and reliably to retrieve all job orders or applications which possess any desired combination of characteristics.

Four Systems Being Tested

If an interviewer in a large city had only a job bank at his disposal, it would be impractical for him to identify, for example, all of the $2.00-per-hour night-shift job openings not requiring a high school education and located within a certain area, because he would manually have to page through a thick book. With a fully computerized system, such customized searches of the entire order or applicant file can be conducted in milliseconds.

The Manpower Administration has underway or in the development stage four fully computerized experimental matching systems. Each is in a different State, and each is technologically and operationally different from the others. Before describing the various systems, it would be useful to discuss briefly some of the significant technological and operational alternatives being examined.

In the conventional manual employment service operation, both workers and jobs are classified by occupation with the six- or nine-digit numerical codes contained in the Department of Labor's DICTIONARY OF OCCUPATIONAL TITLES (DOT). Such a classification has been necessary in a manual operation, and to a lesser degree in a job bank system, for interviewers to retrieve applications and job orders efficiently. The disadvantage of classification is that information is lost because no two workers or jobs are identical, even though they might be identically classified.

Because computers can rapidly conduct searches for alternatives with unique combinations of characteristics, it is possible simply to describe workers and jobs with appropriate words (called descriptors), and to have the computer identify those worker-job pairs in which the worker descriptors match the descriptors of the job. This approach avoids classification and its associated information loss.

The above argument suggests that descriptor systems are to be preferred to classification systems. However, this is not necessarily the case. Classification systems require less computer storage and processing time and facilitate the retrieval and reporting of management and labor market information.

The choice facing the Manpower Administration is much more complex than the simple decision to use a classification or a descriptor approach. There are many possible classification approaches and a variety of descriptor vocabularies, as well as numerous possible combinations of the two systems. Further, there are various methods of measuring how well worker and job are matched, whatever basic approach is used. The problem of choosing among the various possibilities is complicated by the fact that the employment service must serve workers and jobs covering the entire occupational spectrum.

Another difference among matching systems is the time it takes for the employment service to respond to the initial contact by a worker or employer. In the manual operation, response time usually is a matter of minutes, although the search conducted by the interviewer going through his part of the local office orders is not as wide-ranging as that done by a computer with access to all orders in a State. Thus, in the manual operation, clients receive essentially "real-time" service, although often it is only one-time service because repeated searches are not conducted automatically.

Through so-called "batch processing," a computerized matching system can compare applicants and openings every night, after newly received applications and job orders have been added, and print out the results the next morning for use by the interviewers. This technique broadens the search over that of the manual approach, and assures repeated, continuous service. However, batch processing means delayed service, which may be relatively unimportant to some workers or employers but a serious matter to others.

An alternative approach would be to give order takers and placement interviewers direct access to the computer, and permit them to enter applications and job orders in the system immediately and to conduct immediate searches. This "on-line" processing approach requires a great many communications terminals, and operating costs in a medium-sized State easily could be $500,000 a year more than a manual system and, in terms of hardware, perhaps double the cost of a batch-processing system. In addition, there are difficulties in maintaining the files of such a system.

Again, the alternatives facing the Manpower Administration are much more complex than the simple choice between batch and on-line processing. There are many possible approaches to both types of processing, as well as combinations of the two. And it is unlikely that any one approach will be best in every area because, to some extent, the choice is a function of population, industrial structure, and other variable factors.

Test Systems Described

The technological and operational questions discussed above only illustrate the many problems to be considered in designing a national computer-aided job-matching network. An exhaustive analysis of the many issues and alternatives is beyond the scope of this article. However, other relatively important issues include: (1) Weighing the relative importance of the various stipulated requirements of employers or applicants; (2) disseminating information in a more direct manner, such as mailing lists of matches or pairings directly to employers or workers; (3) developing better classification or descriptor systems for matching workers without occupational skills with appropriate job openings or training programs; and (4) using high ratios of interviews to search terminals versus using low ratios.

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The four fully computerized matching systems now being tested in California, Utah, Wisconsin, and New York serve a dual role: Providing operating experience which will allow the Manpower Administration to make better decisions about the nature of the national network, and serving workers and employers in their respective States.

Work on the California Labor Inventory Communications System began in 1962. The initial work involved using the DOT classification system, and an uncontrolled descriptor vocabulary (any word may be used as a descriptor). Since the summer of 1966, California has focused on developing and gradually implementing a batch-processing, descriptor-based system with a controlled vocabulary (only specified words may be used as descriptors). There are no real-time referrals, and batch-processing results are available within 8 working hours. Since January 1970 the system has been the exclusive mechanism for making placements in the San Francisco Professional Office, and since February 1970 it has been used to make over a third of the placements in the Los Angeles Professional Office.

Development of the Utah system began in the summer of 1966, and it was implemented statewide in January 1969. Both on-line and batch processing is used, and searches are based primarily on the traditional DOT classification system. The system has a high ratio of interviewers to communications terminals, and while searches are conducted in real-time, job orders and applications are entered on the computer memory in batch form.

Development of the Wisconsin system began in 1966. It was implemented for one occupational class in one local office in March 1970 and by August was serving the entire occupational spectrum in the Madison local offices. Orders and applications are entered, and searches conducted, on-line. The system attempts to obtain the advantages of both classification and descriptor approaches. It relies primarily on a classification scheme different from that in New York and Utah, but supplements this with descriptors from an uncontrolled vocabulary. It has a low ratio of interviewers to communications terminals.

Since the fall of 1967, New York has been developing an on-line processing, applicant-oriented matching system. The first phase of the system is classification-based, although descriptors will be added at a later date. Now operating in four New York City local offices, the system is specifically designed to serve disadvantaged applicants; it does not conduct searches on behalf of job orders, and it uses elaborate weighting and cross-indexing techniques to enhance the ability of the classification schemes to make useful matches.

The choice of design and the pace at which fully computerized systems are implemented are important issues. Rapid implementation based on present knowledge may be extremely wasteful, because such systems would be quite inferior to those available a few years hence. On the other hand, it is possible that systems based on present knowledge may speed the placement of workers and improve the quality of placements. Thus, delayed implementation may be wasteful in the sense of lost opportunity.

Access to More Openings

Present plans call for continued evaluation and development in a phased progression from the Baltimore-type job bank to more fully computerized systems. These plans represent a considered compromise between the most rapid possible implementation and a desire to install the most efficient systems.

It is not now possible to assess completely the effects of computer-aided matching systems on the employment service and its clients. However, some inferences can be drawn concerning the probable effects of these programs by considering the impact of present and planned systems on job market information.

A major advantage of the job bank to the worker is the greatly increased number of openings to which he has access. A related advantage to the employer is the increased number of workers to which his opening is exposed. The increase over the conventional manual operation in the number of jobs listed and the exposure they receive was a major factor in the decision to expand rapidly the job bank program. However, the usefulness and impact of this increase is open to some argument, and a variety of evidence must

be gathered before any firm conclusions can be drawn. As noted earlier, such evidence is being obtained.

One argument which suggests that the increase is limited in its usefulness is that in the manual employment service operation all job market information of a particular kind is handled within one office. For example, all accountant applications and openings are routed through the Professional and Commercial Office. A local job bank is unlikely to improve significantly the number or exposure of accountant listings, because the type of job openings or workers known to offices other than the Professional Office are unlikely to be of interest to accountants or their employers.

Data Potential Unrealized

Another argument suggests that increases in the number and exposure of openings is of limited use at the lower end of the occupational spectrum. In a loose job market, an employer with openings in relatively unskilled occupations usually can fill them by having them exposed through a single employment service office, so listing in a job bank book may not be particularly advantageous. Conversely, in a very tight job market, an applicant searching for a relatively unskilled job may not need any more information than that which is available in a single local office.

Finally, in markets in which the employment service does not have good penetration, the total number of openings available to applicants may not be very large, regardless of how widely the listings are disseminated.

Job banks do not directly affect the amount of detail included in local job market information available through the employment service. Information about openings contained in job bank descriptions is essentially the same as the information on a conventional job order.

In practice, workers and placement interviewers now get less detailed information from job banks than they do under the conventional arrangement in which interviewers both take job orders and make referrals in particular occupations or industries. The order taker-placement interviewer who specializes often has detailed information about the requirements of a job or employer that is not contained on the job order. Thus, he may be better able to match workers and openings than the job bank placement interviewer with his less detailed information.

Considering both the number of openings listed and the amount of data available on them, it appears that, on balance, local job banks improve the job market information available to most workers. For the least skilled, especially, the loss of detailed information associated with the job bank probably is not of great importance when weighed against the large increase in the number of openings. However, for the skilled worker or for the employer, a local job bank offers little or no improvement in job market information.

Job banks appear to have the potential to make much greater improvements in job market information than they have so far. First, lack of detail of job bank data can be mitigated in several ways. The simplest approach is to add data to the job order. Beyond this, master job orders and master employer records could be developed to provide additional information to placement interviewers. (Master job orders are detailed reference copies of orders placed repeatedly by particular employers. Master employer records contain information concerning specific firms that is useful for an interviewer in making referrals or in job development.) Further, it is possible to retain some degree of specialization of order takers and interviewers without destroying the basic job bank idea.

Second, intercity job banks will increase the number and exposure of listings in highly skilled occupations, as local job banks have in less-skilled jobs. Because of the tight labor markets typical in skilled occupations, employers as well as workers will benefit from this broader dissemination of information.

Third, job bank books could be useful in providing up-to-date information about job markets to persons far removed from the job bank cities. For example, students in rural high schools could make much better decisions concerning migration, and would waste less time searching randomly, if they had access to current job bank books from nearby cities. The possible use of job bank data to influence migration flows is an intriguing area for study.

Finally, job banks have the ability to provide job market information quickly in response to ad hoc needs. Some innovative uses of this capability have already been tried. A high school counselor has a job bank book printed out by educational requirements of the jobs, and uses the book to show students the difference in job opportunities available to graduates and dropouts.

Fully computerized systems will be able to provide more data than is available in any present job market information system. They have two major advantages over job banks in regard to job market information. First, worker data as well as job opening data are included. Second, information collected for use in these systems must be very detailed, compared to a system in which the interviewer provides part of the placement-related information. Thus, detailed information about large numbers of applicants and jobs will be carried in the computer, and can be quickly retrieved.

Major Gains Still Ahead

Although the discussion in this article has focused on the matching of workers and jobs, fully computerized systems also will enhance other aspects of employment service operations. Computer technology can be used to speed and improve the assessment of workers and jobs. And better assessment will have payoffs in counseling as well as in placement. It also is planned to use computers to help develop jobs and training opportunities for persons for whom no openings exist in the files. For example, plans are being made to create a computerized "job opportunities bank" which will contain job leads rather than openings. Applicants will be matched against these leads for job development purposes.

All of the fully computerized systems are still developmental, and many design problems remain to be solved before they can significantly affect employment service operations. The continuing development of such systems will help the employment service move toward a national job-matching network. The number and magnitude of unresolved problems suggest, however, that the major gains from computerization still lie in the future. □

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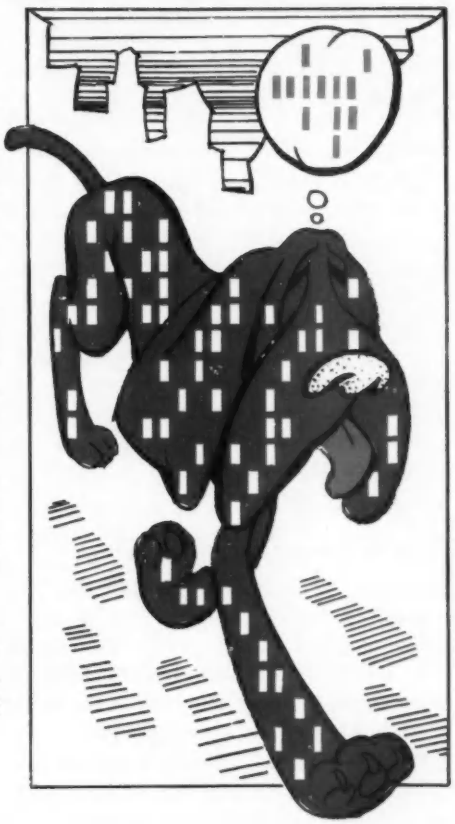
NEW YORK'S AUTOMATED 'BLOODHOUND'

By Arthur Winick



Computer's Job 'Scents' Lead Interviewers Along The Placement Trail

"Mr. Watson, come here. I want you."

History tells us the age of telephone communication was ushered in when an anxious Alexander Graham Bell spoke these words into a primitive ancestor of the princess phone and the telephone genie promptly conjured up Mr. Watson from an adjacent room.

Today, new electronic genies are conjuring at much longer distances and the results are just as epochal. Witness the bit of history fashioned on a day last January when staff of the New York State Employment Service's Office Personnel Placement Center in Manhattan gathered nervously around a high speed teleprinter, waiting for a message that would herald a new day in the art of matching men and jobs.

An insistent clicking broke the silence as the message, fashioned in the memory bank of a computer across the Hudson River in New Jersey, assembled itself on the printer. It read, in part:

> 102178 A. H. VERIF OPENINGS- 1 REFERRALS- 1 DIRECT REFERRAL JOB BEGINS 02/16/70 EMPLOYER'S BUSINESS- TEXTILE DOT - 209.-388.022. CLERK TYPIST EXPER LVL-2 HRS P WK - 35 09:00AM TO 05:00PM SALARY - $100.00/W

When deciphered, the complete cryptogram gave pertinent details on five jobs in the employment service inventory which most closely matched the specifications of a visiting jobseeker at the Office Personnel Placement Center. Minutes before, these specifications had been fed into a terminal at the Placement Center and relayed to the computer over the river. The computer had then scanned the log of jobs registered with it by the Employment Service and had quickly reported back its "best bets."

Receipt of the message climaxed a chain of events that started as a vague concept some 2½ years earlier when executives of the New York agency committed themselves to the idea of harnessing the computer to serve the needs of the Nation's largest labor market. There are about 200,000 employers and some 4 million workers in New York City's five boroughs and the New York State Employment Service (NYSES) is the largest single employment exchange serving them. Each year, NYSES registers some 350,000 jobseekers, is asked to fill some 600,000 vacant positions, and makes about 400,000 placements.

The agency carries out this vast responsibility through a network of 18 mainstream offices (set up along industrial or occupational lines), four Youth Opportunity Centers (YOC), two Concentrated Employment Programs (CEP), eight Work Incentive Program (WIN) offices, and 56 high schools whose graduating seniors are also served by the employment service.

The problems associated with matching workers and jobs within this sprawling complex have always been a concern to the agency. With the proliferation of WIN, YOC, and other specialized offices which do not receive job openings from employers and must therefore solicit them from the mainstream offices, the need for some central job register had become even more pressing.

Prospects for a computerized network that would resolve these difficulties brightened considerably when the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration invited New York to participate along with three other States in an experimental program to develop an automated job matching system. A special NYSES task force was set up to create a computer-based register of jobs, and field service advisory committees were established to insure that local office perspective and concerns would be built into the planning.

The basic assumption at the outset was that the system would be applicant-oriented, with particular emphasis on disadvantaged jobseekers. Essentially, the system was to be programed so that the computer could identify jobs best suited to a given applicant's skills and preferences.

An extensive study was made of the

Mr. Winick is an associate public information officer for the New York State Department of Labor.

information about applicants and their job desires that should be included in the system. It was decided that, in addition to classifying each applicant by occupation using the standard codes in the U.S. Department of Labor's DICTIONARY OF OCCUPATIONAL TITLES (DOT), his preferences on salary, hours of work, industry, and work location would be built into the system. Also included would be an applicant's physical limitations, if any, and his preferences on work shift and short-term or part-time employment.

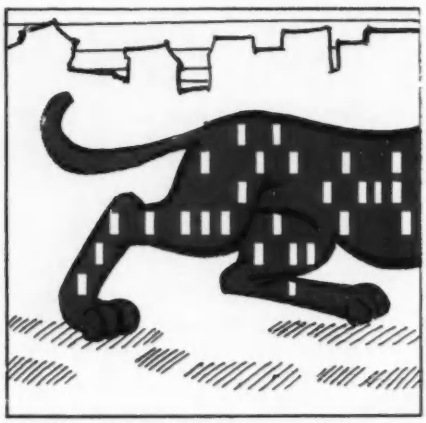
Moreover, various factors would be given greater or lesser weight and the computer would adjust its job scanning accordingly. If salary was a preeminent consideration, the job feedback would reflect this. If place of work or industry was of paramount concern to the applicant, the computer was programed to respond to these special emphases.

The job search also would be refined on an occupational basis. For an applicant in a highly specialized field, the conventional nine-digit DOT occupational code could be expanded and the computer would yield only those jobs tailored to the finer distinctions.

Additional flexibility was built into the DOT coding from the other end as well. To facilitate better placement for the disadvantaged worker with minimal or marginal work experience, the computer was programed to accept only a two or three digit occupational identification, cutting across occupational lines. The idea here was to enable the computer to make an across-the-board search of all its entry-level openings in a given industry, thereby multiplying considerably the applicant's chances of finding a job.

The employment service interviewer unlocks the computer secrets with a simple key—a job search form. He enters on the form the pertinent information for the applicant he is serving, then turns it over to a terminal operator who transmits the data to the computer. In minutes, the computer scans its job openings and feeds back, on a high-speed printer, details of five jobs which most closely approximate the applicant's specifications.

The secretary who wants to work in a Madison Avenue advertising agency and insists on a salary of at least $125 a week



can be advised in minutes of the openings that come closest to filling the bill.

The working mother who wants a part-time selling job close to home can be informed quickly of the best bets for her.

The man who wants only night-shift work and the youngster who needs a job for a couple of months until he's called into service also get rapid word on the positions that come closest to their special requirements.

Interviewer Takes Over

After the computer has done this "leg work" for him, the employment interviewer picks up the professional aspect of the placement function, helping the applicant to select the job which seems most suitable. At this ready-for-referral stage, safeguards were built into the system to preclude the nightmare descent of masses of jobseekers onto an unwary employer. There are some 1,200 employment interviewers and counselors in New York City who potentially could refer workers to any given job registered with the computer.

To control referrals, the computer printout listing the five best jobs does not identify the prospective employer. When the interviewer wants to make a referral to a listed job, he advises the computer. If the job has not reached its authorized referral ceiling, contact information is released. If word comes back that the job is fully referred, the interviewer can pursue the second most appropriate opening. The request for employer identification can be made for two jobs simultaneously so the computer contact need not be repeated.

When a referral is made, the interviewer immediately notifies the computer. In fact, all changes in a job order—referrals, placements, or cancellations—are fed to the computer immediately so the current status of any job is reflected in the printouts. This gives maximum assurance that jobseekers are not referred to positions no longer open and busy employers are not besieged with candidates for jobs filled the day before.

In addition to the Manhattan Office Personnel Placement Center where it was launched last January, the system has been extended to a Youth Opportunity Center, an outreach office in Harlem, and a mainstream office handling all industrial jobs for the borough of Brooklyn. It is hoped that the other NYSES facilities in New York City will be phased into the system and that the computer one day will maintain an inventory of 20,000 jobs.

Most of the bugs that invariably affect a new and radically different operation have been ironed out, and experience to date indicates that the basic expectations for the systems are being realized.

Employers, who previously had relatively limited access to the thousands of workers registered with the NYSES, now have considerably broader exposure of their openings. And this exposure will expand as the system is expanded to include more offices.

Moreover, high priority orders now can receive almost instant attention at all offices linked to the computers, insuring substantially faster referral and placement. The interviewer who receives a job order he feels warrants instant attention—or an order calling for a large number of workers—can have his terminal operator convey the job specifications to every other terminal in the system. Within minutes, interviewers and counselors in all offices with terminals can be working on that order.

For the jobseeker, the effective centralization of job orders means that he is more likely than before to be referred to a job, and the job is more likely to meet his personal preferences; in short, there is greater prospect of a better match with all its mutual advantages for worker and employer.

A case in point is the woman who

had worked 16 years in a dry cleaning store, earning $65 a week. Left partially paralyzed by a stroke in 1967 and forced to depend on public assistance, she shopped around for a way to become self-supporting again.

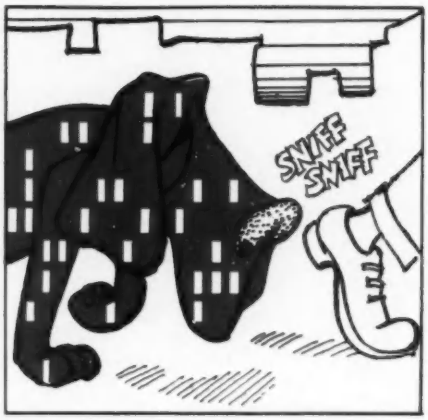
Through the auspices of a State rehabilitation agency, she was trained in general office practice and then referred to the employment service for placement. After some initial counseling to clarify her goals and define her physical limitations, the computer was fed information on her training, physical limitations, salary preferences, and other conditions of employment.

Back came information on five jobs most closely tailored to her original specifications. Each was evaluated by the applicant and the counselor, and an opening for a worker to do recordkeeping and other basic clerical tasks for a buying office was selected. The pay was $80 a week to start and the work was less demanding physically than her previous job.

She was referred and hired, and both she and her employer have been pleased with the way things have worked out since.

Kudos for the computer also are in order for its assistance to a typist who had been unable to work since 1964 because of mental illness. Finally making a tentative effort in the direction of reemployment, she visited the State employment service early in 1970. Counselors there found her quiet and withdrawn and not strongly motivated to work. Some jobs were solicited in her behalf and one employer agreed to see her, but turned her down, saying there would be too much pressure for her on the job.

When she came back to the employment service a few days later, a computer scanning of typist positions was arranged at the $85-a-week salary level she said was acceptable. Of the five jobs fed back, the most favorable was with a small firm where the counselors believed pressure would be at a minimum. It paid $100 a week. The employer was willing to hire the applicant but reluctant to pay $100 a week to someone whose skills had not been used for 6 years. After further discussion, he agreed to pay her $75 and to adjust her salary according to her performance.



Contacted a month later, the employer said he had increased the woman's salary to $85 a week and expected that raises in the near future would bring her to $100. Even more significant, perhaps, was his observation that "she is beginning to open up—smiles—is coming out of her shell."

There is little doubt that the computer has opened a whole new spectrum of opportunity for New York City jobseekers. For the disadvantaged, as has been noted, it has substantially improved placement prospects.

Human Element Still Vital

Moreover, even the innovation of referring disadvantaged workers against a broad cross section of entry-level jobs on the basis of a two or three digit occupational code, a substantial improvement over prior methods of service, is itself just a way station to even more effective assistance. A new refinement now being developed would eliminate dependence on occupational codes completely. Instead, the interviewer initiating a job search could brief the computer on the disadvantaged jobseeker's traits, interests, temperament, aptitudes, hobbies, and any training he may have had. The computer would quickly identify those jobs which are particularly compatible with the applicant file.

By providing the computer with meaningful search criteria, the marginal worker would be more likely to find a satisfactory job. Moreover, directed to the areas where his abilities and inclinations lie, he would have his best opportunity to move up the ladder to more responsible employment.

In addition to expanding the system to other offices in New York City, thought is being given to tying in offices on Long Island and in Westchester County, both adjacent to New York City and an integral part of the Nation's largest metropolitan area.

Also underway is a project to store information about jobseekers in a computer and ultimately to establish a central listing of all persons registered with the employment service in the New York City area. Just as the computer now is being asked to list jobs for applicants, it may one day be able to identify qualified workers to fill vacant jobs.

Despite the achievements of the computer, and the accomplishments undoubtedly yet to come, the employment service is not on the way to becoming a dehumanized agency. The special talents of the computer are simply being applied to what it does best—storing, cataloging, and quickly reproducing a vast amount of complex information. The more sophisticated aspect of placement assistance—counseling workers, motivating them, helping them to become job-ready —remains what it always has been, a human function. Helping the worker evaluate his job choices—the short-term as against the long-term promise of a given position, the question of making a sacrifice on salary now for the prospect of advancement later, all the complex subtleties that are so important to the welfare of the worker—will continue to be the province of the professionally trained counselor and interviewer.

Employment service personnel in New York City have already made this discovery. At the beginning, they were wary, but when it became apparent that the computer—like the DOT—made it easier for them to do the job, the initial reluctance disappeared.

More and more staff members are becoming enthusiastic about the computer, or as one interviewer calls it, "the bloodhound": "You give it the scent and it's off and running, and back in minutes with a mouthful of solid job prospects."

How, another New York staffer recently asked, did we ever get along without that computer? □

Making the Job Corps More Flexible

A women's facility located in a residential neighborhood near the heart of the city, the Atlanta Training Center, a converted apartment building, can accommodate 250 resident and 100 nonresident trainees.

General education classes at the Atlanta Center place heavy emphasis on reading skills.

By JOAN WILLIAMS

On July 1, 1969, the Job Corps was transferred from the Office of Economic Opportunity to the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration. It came shorn of more than half of its component centers and worried for its future.

Today, little more than a year later, the Job Corps is a healthy, expanding program. Participants are staying in the program longer and placements in jobs, school, and the military service have increased.

Job Corps centers are operating at capacity levels and operating costs are down.

New "local" centers are opening—28 in all—giving Job Corps greater flexibility to meet the needs of the youth it serves.

And the Job Corps is no longer in precarious isolation. Now it supports and is supported by the total system of manpower programs.

The Job Corps was established in 1965 with the specific purpose of removing young people from home or community environments so deprived or so disruptive as to make rehabilitation of the youngsters virtually impossible. Certain other presumptions guided the original program:

- Urban ghetto youth could be rehabilitated by shifting them to rural settings.
- Intensive support services such as basic education, "life skills" preparation, and activities to promote physical development and other recreation experience were as important as skill training.
- Each center should be substantially self-sufficient.

But actual operating experience—plus formal evaluation—showed that some of the underlying premises of the Job Corps were questionable. High dropout rates in the first 30-90 days after enrollment cast serious doubt on the wisdom of sending participants far from home, often to isolated areas. Moreover, training youth away from the areas where they would be seeking work limited effective job development and on-the-job training opportunities. The idea of self-sufficient centers was challenged on the grounds of

Miss Williams is a member of the Manpower Administration special review staff.

It's snack time at the Child Development Center, a unique feature that makes it possible for solo parents to live with their children at the Atlanta facility. Mother and child share an apartment, and while mothers are in class or job training their youngsters are cared for in the Child Center.

expense and lack of efficiency. In addition, it became clear that not all of the urgent needs of many youth—such as for remedial education—were being met effectively at all centers. Many of the Conservation Centers still emphasized conservation work at the expense of useful skill training.

Other premises proved sound—that many disadvantaged youth require residential facilities, and that skill training alone cannot meet the severe problems of these youth without the help of intensive support services. Yet these principles were not being applied effectively in the program as a whole. Costs were high, but job placements were not. There was little effective followup of former participants.

And, of course, times had changed since 1965. When the Job Corps came into being, there were relatively few manpower training and human resources opportunities. By 1969 there had been a major expansion of training projects. For example—in 1964 only 27,000 youth were enrolled in Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) programs. In 1969, there were about 1 million people under 22 enrolled in all manpower programs.

A priority aim stated by President Nixon early in 1969 was the development by the Department of Labor of a comprehensive manpower program, designed to make centrally available to the unemployed and the underemployed a full range of Federal job training and placement services. Toward this end, it was essential that the many Federal manpower programs be integrated and coordinated.

Accordingly, the Department of Labor undertook a complete reshaping of the Job Corps in terms of its purpose, size, structure, and relationship to other manpower programs. There is little doubt that the Jobs Corps' effectiveness was enhanced when it joined the total system of manpower programs that today involves more than 1.7 million people and is funded in excess of $2 billion. Membership in the manpower family means a sharing of training opportunities, resulting in greater efficiency and economy.

The Job Corps brought to the manpower system a unique and missing ingredient—a residential component encompassing a comprehensive set of support services. Now, if young people in MDTA projects or the Neighborhood Youth Corps need residential services, they can be referred to the Job Corps. Conversely, vocational courses in MDTA skill centers and on-the-job training opportunities are available to Corpsmen. Job Corps may also refer former trainees to the Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program, or to industry apprenticeship programs.

Wherever Job Corps centers exist, progress is being made in the development of linkages with other manpower programs. This is extremely important to the effectiveness of the overall training effort administered by the Labor Department. Cooperative arrangments also are being made with local educational institutions and health care and recreation departments, in an attempt to maximize use of existing community facilities. In turn, Job Corps centers are opening their facilities to the communities.

Several other basic changes were necessary to strengthen the Job Corps. Use of the Job Corps basic education system, which is uniquely adapted to the needs of the school dropout, had been enforced only in Conservation Centers. Now it is the minimum system for all centers. The practice of dividing time equally between education and work projects was eliminated. Time division now reflects the specific needs of the individual. Generally speaking, the lower the Corpsman's level of academic achievement, the greater the time he will spend in remedial education.

All Job Corps vocational training programs now have standards based upon the skills and knowledge required by the

Residential and training facilities for the men's division of the Portland Residential Manpower Center are located at the scenic Springdale Campus, some 20 miles from downtown Portland.

Job Corps continued

job. The standards were developed in cooperation with employers and represent what they regard as acceptable performance levels.

In Conservation Centers, training programs operated by trade unions have been expanded. Twenty-four of the 32 Conservation Centers have contracted to operate such programs, which offer greater training control and better placement potential.

In another move to strengthen placement efforts, the Manpower Administration decided that individual employment plans must be developed for each participant early in the program. Before the young man or woman leaves the center, one or more specific job referrals will be arranged. Besides its obvious advantages, the system also should improve motivation and cut dropouts. The private firms which run the Job Corps centers under contract have been asked to hire graduates for employment within their corporate structure and at the centers themselves. All have made affirmative commitments.

Metals instructor Robert Gover checks Michael Burton's progress in learning to operate a lathe at the Portland Center.

Support services for the residential living program, which is the very heart of the Job Corps, have been strengthened. Resources within the centers have been reallocated to provide more staff for vocational, recreational, guidance, and health programs. A wide array of support services is essential to help participants understand others, build a sense of personal identity and dignity, and acquire the skills to cope with the world of work.

A unified monitoring system has been developed for systematic review of center operations and effective correction of deficiencies. And screening standards have been reviewed, to ensure that only those youth who really need the Job Corps are enrolled in it.

Support services for Job Corps graduates, such as those offered by Graduate Aid to Employment (GATE) Houses, may be expanded and made available to other manpower programs.

The major innovations in the Job Corps since it was taken over by the Labor Department are the new residential manpower centers and residential support centers. The basic concept behind the new centers is to keep trainees in their home areas and to prepare them for the kinds of jobs available there. Thus the new centers—all located in or near the cities which they serve—fulfill a dual mission. They teach Job Corpsmen the skills necessary for specific jobs, and they help to fill the manpower needs of the community. (Also, it is hoped they will cut down on the major reasons for dropping out of the Job Corps—homesickness.)

In opening new centers, the Labor Department has proceeded with caution, even though it has meant some slippage from the original time schedule. One of the lessons learned from Job Corps experience was not to rush ahead to open

Robert Martin (left) and Ken McDowell discuss a magazine article in the dormitory at the Springdale campus of the Portland Residential Manpower Center.

Tutor Margaret Garylow helps a Portland Corpsman with his classroom studies.

centers merely for the sake of meeting deadlines. The best measure of success is the establishment of a successful center, and that takes time.

Eleven new residential manpower centers were approved by the Labor Department during fiscal 1970, and nine more are "in the mill." The centers now open, or to open before 1970 ends, are in Phoenix, with facilities for 350 men and women; Edison, N.J., for 350 young men; a three-unit facility in Hawaii (on Oahu, Hawaii, Kauai) for 250 men; Atlanta, for 350 women; Portland, Oreg., for 225 men and women; Washington, D.C., for 275 men and women; El Paso, for 250 men; Cincinnati, for 200 men; St. Louis, for 350 men and women; New York, for 250 men; Detroit, for 275 men and women. Prospective locations for other residential manpower facilities are Boston, Baltimore, Richmond, Pittsburgh, Chicago, Milwaukee, Tulsa, San Jose, and West Virginia.

The first of seven residential support centers, for so-called "high-risk" youth who need special attention, is now operating in San Francisco. Other support centers are expected to be in Norfolk, Va.; Hartford, Conn.; Davenport, Iowa; Wilmington, Del.; Jacksonville, Fla.; and Rochester, N.Y.

The new centers give the Job Corps a flexibility it has long needed. Residents of the new manpower centers live away from home during the workweek and can return home weekends. These centers also can serve nonresident enrollees, as do some of the older Job Corps centers.

The new support centers, which will have an average enrollment of 30, are designed to house and help youth with severe personal problems. These centers will have no training facilities; the youth living in them will get job training through various programs in the community. Assigned to these centers will be young people who have such serious behavior problems that they are unable to participate successfully in school, vocational training, and other ordinary youth programs. Most come from a broken family, or have no family at all. Many have no decent place to live.

The residential support center offers a secure base for these troubled youth to operate from. Staff members—many from the same background as the residents—work with the families of the young people. Counselors will clear away obstructions, for example, that often prevent a needy family from qualifying for welfare, health care, legal aid, and other public services.

Some 35 percent of the openings in all new centers are planned for young women, compared with 28 percent of total Job Corps openings in fiscal 1969. Some of the women residents will be solo parents, for whom child-care services will be furnished at the center or in the community.

The added flexibility provided by the 27 new centers will enable the Job Corps to be more responsive to the differing needs of disadvantaged youth. Relatively small, these centers should do a better job with delinquent youth who are difficult to handle in large centers and often unwelcome in strange communities. Highly individualized attention and efforts to help the youngsters' families to improve home environments are regarded as keys to success.

Thus, the revamped Job Corps offers a variety of arrangements—16 regional centers (4 for men, 12 for women), especially useful in providing manpower services to young people from rural and other areas with limited vocational training opportunities; 32 Conservation Centers in rural areas to correct severe educational deficiencies and offer a start up the occupational ladder; and the new residential manpower centers and support centers with their emphasis on serving greatly disadvantaged youth in a particular city or metropolitan area.

When all Job Corps centers are in full operation, they will serve about 26,000 young people. □

TAKING AIM ON JOBS

Though overshadowed by such stars as Larry Doby and Luke Easter, Dave Pope was one of the Negro baseball players who came to Cleveland in the early 1950's, helped bring the Indians a pennant, and aided in cracking the color line in the American League.

Now middle-aged and a settled family man, Pope roams the streets and personnel offices of the city where he once roamed right field, trying to crack another barrier, the one that bars minorities and other poor people from good jobs.

Pope heads a job coaching staff of 29 men and women for AIM-JOBS, the Cleveland organization in charge of the city's Concentrated Employment Program (CEP). CEP focuses all available manpower and supportive services within a community on solving the employment problems of people living in poverty neighborhoods. By July of this year his staff had helped smooth the transition from unemployment to steady work for some 7,500 poor, inner-city people.

"The dividing line between making it and not making it in this world is very thin," said Pope. "Many people fall on the wrong side of the line because they simply don't know where to go or where to look for opportunities. That's our job."

Followup Help Required

AIM-JOBS has found it must do more than recruit a man, orient and train him, give him certain supportive services, and place him in a job. Its trainees, the hard-core unemployed, are usually so alienated from the mainstream of American life that 6 or more months of followup help often are required to fit them for steady work.

That's where Pope and his staff come in. "We'll do anything that will help make a man a productive employee," he said. "We help with personal problems, even family problems. In one case we've even gone so far as to deliver a wife to the hospital to have a baby so the man could stay on the job."

A good coach must be an effective liaison man between the new employee and his employer. "It's hard explaning to an employer why a man who walks off a $5-an-hour job deserves another chance," said Pope. "They don't understand the contributing causes. On the other side there's a certain amount of suspicion on the part of our clients. They just don't believe things will be as we say, that they're going to get a crack at a good job. And sometimes with reason."

"Personalized service" for each participant is more than a slogan at AIM-JOBS; it is a vital necessity. "When we set up a job interview, we don't send the man, we take him out to the interview personally," job coach Claude Starks said. "Otherwise, we've found out, he often doesn't get there or he's late. Sometimes we sit in on the job interview and try to get an immediate decision on whether he's hired or not."

At any given time, a job coach's caseload will be between 20 and 30 people. Each participant is given the coach's home phone number so he can call for help at any hour of the day or night.

Starks once was awakened at 2 a.m. by a phone call from a trainee's wife who said her husband wasn't home yet. "It was payday and every payday he got drunk. Next morning he turned up and said he had stopped for a drink or two with the fellows and blew his money in a crap game. He felt bad and didn't go back to work. (He was a machine operator at a manufacturing firm.) I had to go out and talk to the employer to get him another chance."

Just because a job coach is black does not mean he can count on instant success with black enrollees. "When they come to you, they're hostile and feel like everyone's against them," said Starks. "He sees you in that white shirt and tie and he thinks you're like everyone else. He's frightened."

Job placement problems are most difficult for youngsters with little or no work experience. But as Rev. Ernest Watts, another job coach, points out, older workers with good job records have their troubles too.

"I had this one client who was on the streets because his company had moved out of the city. He had a fine work record. I took him to a large chain and had to fill out his application. They didn't want to hire him because he was too old (the man was barely past 40) and he could scarcely read or write."

Rev. Watts, an associate minister in the Church of God in Christ, had to do a little Christian pleading. "I convinced personnel to give him a try—because he was a good worker and a family man with four children. As a rule, personnel people take our word. They put him in their service station operation as an attendant. He hasn't missed a day's work in a year and a half. His pay is $3.75 an hour and he's saved $2,000 and is buying a house. He was living in a housing project. The personnel man is crazy about him."

Rev. Watts, who left pastoring 3 years ago to join AIM-JOBS, says there are two danger points when a man goes to work —the first week and right after the first month. "At the beginning they want to work and they want a steady job. That first week, the problem is to get out of bed and be on time. They're not used to it. Then they get that second or third paycheck and they go out and have a good time. They want to celebrate."

Right to Move on Defended

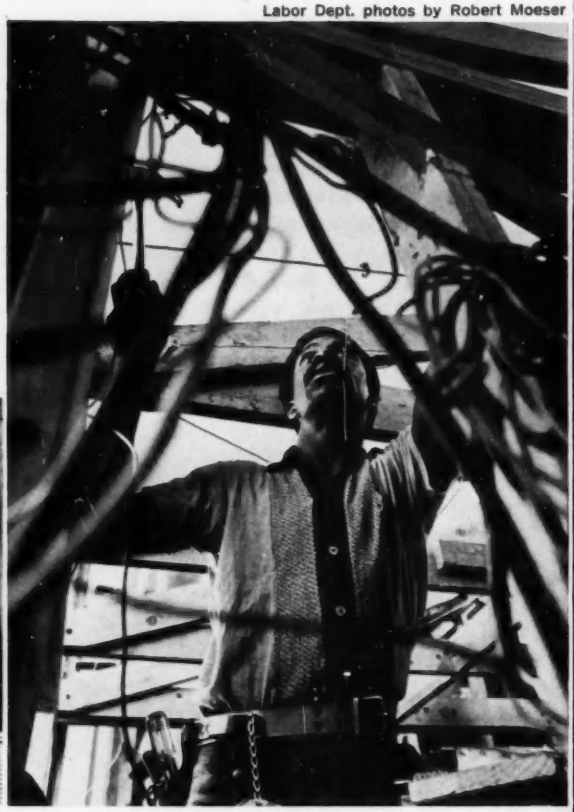
Watts and his colleagues try to cover all escape routes. Their standard practice is to deliver participants to work until they can make their own arrangements. During Cleveland's 3-week bus strike last summer, the coaches used their own cars to pick up workers who depended on public transportation.

AIM-JOBS director Clarence H. Holmes backs his coaches' efforts to win an extra margin of consideration by employers for the disadvantaged. "Our philosophy is that we are set up to take the so-called hard core and lift them out of the disabilities that have inhibited their ability to find work and hopefully to make institutional changes, particularly in the employment apparatus, that have held them back in the past," said Holmes, a successful black lawyer before joining AIM-JOBS 3½ years ago. "We would consider that we had failed our mission if we only made job placements without also changing the institutions."

The State employment service, which assumed responsibility for CEP job development and placement in April, must turn its back on its traditional role as a referral agency and become a job development and placement agency, Holmes said. "Otherwise our marriage won't be a happy one." Though a good deal of progress has been made, both the em-

Labor Dept. photos by Robert Moeser

Wiring diagrams and a practice building mockup help would-be electricians learn their trade at the Forest City Materials Company Training Center.



Confronted by a maze of wires (above), electrician trainee Charles Stroud's face (right) reflects the intense concentration required to master the complex assignment.

ployment service and private companies' personnel departments must become more responsive to the special needs of the poor, he feels.

Holmes rejects any double standards of conduct that work against the disadvantaged. One AIM-JOBS critic noted recently that "the better an enrollee's job record, the sooner he drops out of his job because of dissatisfaction."

"I think that's a positive factor, not negative," said Holmes. "All this mobility we talk about—the disadvantaged have as much right to become dissatisfied and move on to something else as graduates of the Harvard Business School."

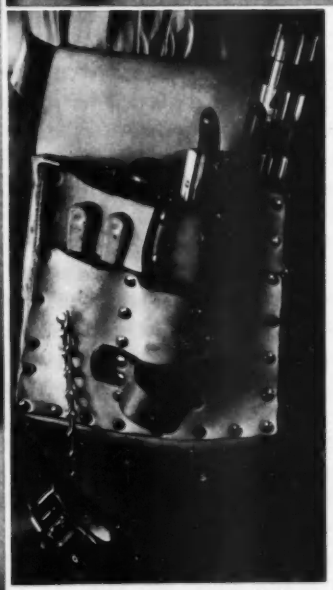
Another criticism was that a survey based on a sample of 373 AIM-JOBS recruits showed only 47 percent stayed on the job or in training for at least 6 months. "That survey was based on our first few weeks of operation," said Holmes. "Our rate is now 65 percent."

Holmes said many of those who fail do so because AIM-JOBS lacks two things: "The resources to treat the hardest kind of cases and the sophistication to do it. Life is full of hard choices. We have to decide who to serve. We could treat the hardest cases if we handled only 300 a year. But we have to try to do the greatest good for the greatest number who fall into the hard-core category."

The hardest cases are those with severe psychiatric problems or physical handicaps or those who cannot be reached by orientation and counseling because of "the pathology of their experience" as disadvantaged persons, he said.

Holmes heads the Nation's oldest CEP. It was funded in June 1967, a few months after the U.S. Department of Labor made a survey showing that in the slums of 13 major cities about 1 out of every 10 workers was unemployed (three times the national average) and 1 out of 3 was either jobless or had an income below the poverty level.

Creation of CEP was announced by the Labor Department in March 1967. Cleveland was first because unemployment in its Hough area was 15.6 percent,



Journeyman or neophyte, an electrician needs the tools of the trade.

higher than any U.S. neighborhood studied, though the figure for the Cleveland metropolitan area as a whole was only 3.5 percent, slightly below the national average. The target areas for the Cleveland CEP were the Glenville, Hough, Central, Kinsman, and Near West Side neighborhoods with a combined population of 150,000 and a jobless rate of more than 15 percent.

AIM-JOBS was created especially to run the program. The parent organization was the Businessmen's Interracial Committee, which was organized in 1964 in the aftermath of demonstrations to desegregate Cleveland schools. White and black business and professional men formed it to help find solutions for the city's housing, education, and racial problems.

To receive the $5.8 million Labor Department grant waiting in the wings, AIM-JOBS was incorporated as a nonprofit agency in April 1967. Its governing board of 12 men and women included six representatives of the Interracial Committee,

three from labor unions, and three from the target neighborhoods. The board since has been enlarged to 15 to include three Cleveland city councilmen. Five blacks and two women are on the board now. Chairman of the board is A. Clifford Thornton, vice president of corporate and public affairs for Eaton Yale & Towne, Inc., a billion dollar transportation and construction equipment firm headquartered in Cleveland.

Lend-leasing of executives by local industry was an important factor in AIM-JOBS' early days in Cleveland. Top executives from leading companies were lent to the organization and they functioned as "door openers for our job developers," explained Holmes. "They'd get in touch with someone in the companies they knew and would often go with our job developers on the first call." More than 1,200 job openings were nailed down in this fashion.

The importance of lend-leasing is waning now. Many of the executives who normally would have been lent to AIM-JOBS are going into the National Alliance of Businessmen's Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program, which also seeks to place the hard core in jobs in the private sector. Another factor is that the State employment service now has the primary responsibility for job development.

Private money has given the program a welcome degree of flexibility. The Ford Foundation awarded AIM-JOBS a total of $115,000 in 1967 and 1968. This money has been used to cover expenses not allowable under Federal contracts or which cannot be met because of budgetary restrictions. Enrollees have been bought safety shoes, goggles, tools, and other equipment necessary to hold jobs, and many have been lent money to cover living costs between the end of training and the first paychecks on their new jobs. Cleveland business firms have also contributed to these funds.

Thornton believes AIM-JOBS will have a lasting and far-reaching impact on the city's job climate. "It's not front page news," he said, "but AIM-JOBS has led to a more favorable acceptance by the business community" of manpower and poverty programs generally.

AIM-JOBS has a staff of about 145 men and women, most of them residents of the target neighborhoods, including job coaches, outreach and orientation specialists, clerical and personnel people, supervisors, administrators, record keepers, and day care and New Careers coordinators. Headquarters is a former combination office and light factory building in a low rent district readily accessible by public transportation to all the target areas.

All of AIM-JOBS' varied activities begin with recruiting. A typical enrollee may be pulled off the streets by an outreach specialist stationed in one of the many Neighborhood Opportunity Centers in the target neighborhoods. If he meets the poverty criteria, he is given a physical examination. If minor treatment is called for—say a pair of glasses—he gets it. Serious medical problems are handled by Cleveland Metropolitan General Hospital.

Recruits with a chronic, severe handicap or psychiatric condition are turned over to experts of the State Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation, which has personnel stationed at the AIM-JOBS center.

English Classes Available

If physically fit, the recruit is tested for aptitudes and skills. Then he and a five-man manpower team sit down together to decide whether he is ready for a job or should go into training first. The team consists of a clerk-typist, a placement officer, an orientation specialist, a counselor, and a work-training specialist.

If he is not ready for work, he receives 2 weeks of orientation to learn how to get along on the job, how to manage money, the functions of labor unions, and why employers require punctuality and reliability. He is paid the regular Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) allowance of $47 a week plus $5 for each dependent.

If he needs basic education he is paid the MDTA allowance while attending school full time. The remedial classes emphasize math and reading, and the trainee stays in them until his basic achievement scores rise two grades or he is ready for job training.

Spanish-speaking participants who need coaching in English are referred to the Spanish American Committee for a Better Community, which sends them to half-day classes until they develop a basic fluency in the language. Then they return to AIM-JOBS for additional job preparation.

A wide array of job training is available to AIM-JOBS participants. Depending on their aptitudes and interests, they may:

- Enroll in the New Careers Center at Cuyahoga Community College. These trainees get on-the-job experience combined with related academic instruction in preparation for careers as professional aides. Urban technicians train for 2 years. Graduates of the 1-year employment or education aide program can move into a career with the State employment service or the community college (20 have done so with each agency.)
- Learn electricity, carpentry, plumbing, or painting in the 6-month training program subcontracted by AIM - JOBS to the Forest City Materials Company, largest lumber and do-it-yourself dealer in northeastern Ohio. Graduates may be hired by private contractors or Forest City itself.
- Prepare for apprenticeship openings by learning the fundamentals of carpentry, dry-walling, tile-setting, and painting in the housing rehabilitation program run by Project Peace, a nonprofit organization established by the Catholic Diocese of Cleveland.
- Train for clerical or commercial food preparation positions.
- Get basic work experience as an aide in a hospital or some other government or nonprofit agency through Project Impact.

Trainees in all of these programs are paid $1.60 an hour.

Nearly 600 Cleveland business and industrial firms have hired AIM-JOBS graduates, among them such giants as General Electric, Union Carbide, United Airlines, Chrysler, and Ford as well as smaller businesses such as Ferro Engineering and Jet Supermarkets (a local black grocery chain).

"The majority of people referred to us by AIM-JOBS have been very good," said Bruce Stephen, head of industrial relations for the carbon products division at Union Carbide's Cleveland plant. "We've hired more than a dozen in the past 2 years and they run the gamut from

Janice Zalewski teaches English to Spanish-speaking AIM-JOBS participants (from right) Lamonita Malina, Norma Lahoz, and Ada Colon.

Carl Duncan practices gas welding in a class conducted for AIM-JOBS by Air Reduction Company, a manufacturer of welding supplies.

general laborers to skilled machine operators to office girls. A lot of it has to do with the structure they've built into the program." He said he was particularly impressed with the concientiousness of the coaching staff. "They spend a good deal of time checking back with the employer. They come by in person and are in constant contact by phone. They do an extremely good job."

Pay Averages $100 a Week

Because of AIM-JOBS' rich program mix, men and women in a variety of dead-end situations have been eased along the pathway to better jobs and higher earnings:

• In November 1968, Richard Schucofsky, 33, a ninth grade dropout with five children, was in a bank to cash his unemployment check. In the previous 12 months he had held and lost 20 jobs. An AIM-JOBS recruiter, working out of the Neighborhood Opportunity Center above the bank, approached him at the teller's window and asked: "Would you like to get a good job and be paid while you train for it?" Forty-five minutes later he was enrolled.

AIM-JOBS tests disclosed he had high mental ability but needed drill in math and English. He got it in 6 weeks and was enrolled in the engine lathe program at the MDTA Skills Center. When he graduated from the latter 3½ months later, he said, "This is the first thing I completed in my whole life." Center officials, noting that he often studied and worked 14 hours a day, decided they could use such a dedicated man. He now is a trainer at the center and makes $4.50 an hour. He has received his high school equivalency certificate and plans to enroll in college and major in engineering.

• Mrs. Alice Thompson had been working 5 years in a hospital kitchen and grill to support herself and two children and had no chance for promotion. She enrolled in the clerical training program, while also working 20 hours a week at night to supplement her training stipend. In December 1968, she graduated and was hired as a secretary in the Public Defender's office, starting at $4,700 a year. She worked her way up to administrative assistant, managing the office and supervising three other women, and now earns $6,800.

• Angelo Tronscoso, 34, a native Cuban, arrived in the U.S. in December 1969, with his wife and three children. "I came to Cleveland looking for a factory job but no factory would hire me because I could speak only a little English."

He learned the language in 3 months through the Spanish American Committee for a Better Community. His counselor discovered he had had accounting experience, and told him to forget about a factory job. He was placed in a work experience slot with the Metropolitan Housing Authority Finance Department. He now has a full-time job there as an assistant accountant. And his wife, who took the same language training, now works for the international division of American Greeting Card Corporation where her bilingual abilities, combined with secretarial skills, make her a valued employee.

• Delano DeFreeze, a 24-year-old black high school dropout, thought enrolling at AIM-JOBS would guarantee him rapid placement in a high-paying, easy job. This unrealistic expectation led to the loss of five jobs in a row. Finally he believed what his counselors told him: A poor education and lack of skills do not add up to quick money. He reluctantly followed their advice and enrolled in the Construction Trades Training Program. He learned rapidly and after 6 months was awarded a journeyman card by the local electricians union. His pay is now $7.81 an hour and he is a budding capitalist. He has bought a four-suite apartment house and plans to buy more. "That electrician training really turned me on," he says.

Most CEP graduates do not do so well, of course. A study of those placed in jobs for the 14 months ended last March showed an average hourly wage of $2.58 with a range of $1.60 to $7.81.

What does it all add up to? What has AIM-JOBS achieved in 3½ years? "It has drawn together all elements of the community — government, business, labor, black and white — to make effective use of government money to help the disadvantaged," said Chairman Thornton. Dave Pope puts it in simpler fashion:

"This agency gave hope to people who otherwise would not have had it." □

News & Notes

The National Academy of Sciences has called for the training of thousands of "doctor's assistants" to alleviate the shortage of physicians. The Academy's board of medicine reports that the U.S. needs 50,000 more physicians. It noted that too few of the 325,000 now practicing are doing so in either big-city ghettos or rural areas. The quickest way to relieve the shortage is to train young persons to do routine medical tasks which now consume a significant portion of the average doctor's time, the board reports. It said prime candidates for the new medical specialty are the 30,000 medical corpsmen discharged annually by the military services.

* * *

A shortage of trained health experts is hampering the delivery of effective care for mental disease, according to knowledgeable medical men. Dr. Irving Phillips of the University of California's Langley Porter Institute said of about 1.4 million children who need psychiatric care, less than 500,000 are getting it. "There are vacancies for trained psychiatrists all over the country but we just can't fill them," said Dr. L. Douglas Lenkowski of Western Reserve University in Cleveland. "We must step up the capacity of the medical schools."

* * *

Many engineers and scientists have been laid off because of aerospace and defense contract cutbacks. The Department of Labor is funding a project to show these professionals how to find jobs in other industries. The American Institute of Aeronautics and Astronautics has been awarded a $22,890 contract to conduct workshops at Boston, Philadelphia, Huntsville, Dallas-Ft. Worth, and Seattle. An estimated 2,500 unemployed professionals will participate. If the pilot effort proves successful, similar workshops will be held in about 25 more areas with substantial aerospace and defense layoffs.

* * *

The Labor Department is distributing $25 million in manpower training funds among the States hardest hit by unemployment. The money will be used to expand existing manpower programs to help the jobless in Alaska, California, Maine, Michigan, Oregon, Rhode Island, Washington, and Puerto Rico.

Apprentices working on projects necessary to the national health, safety, or interest will continue to receive military deferments. President Nixon's 1970 Executive order prohibiting the granting of occupational deferments does not apply to apprentices, the U.S. Department of Labor said in issuing a clarification of the order.

* * *

Since the Apprenticeship Outreach Program was formally organized 3 years ago, the National Urban League has placed more than 2,200 young men as apprentices in the building and construction trades. The League has undertaken eight new projects in nine cities to prepare an additional 215 minority youth for apprenticeship. This brings to 29 the number of Outreach projects currently sponsored by the League, whose efforts span 32 cities. The program calls for up to 10 weeks of preparation, using the "tutor and cram" technique, to help youth pass specific trades examinations.

* * *

Last year the Gary Job Corps Center in San Marcos, Tex., trained more than 6,000 young men for automotive, metal, business, medical, food service, electrical, and construction jobs. More than 25,000 have been trained since the center opened in March 1965. Texas Educational Foundation, Inc., which has operated the center since it opened, has been given a contract extension through June 30, 1971, by the U.S. Department of Labor.

* * *

A $40,000 Department of Labor contract with the Optometric Center of New York to find out if the disadvantaged can be trained for technical jobs is nearing completion. A cross section of practicing optometrists throughout the Nation is being quizzed. Investigators are attempting to categorize job tasks in order to create a career ladder for technical occupations in optometry.

* * *

Computerized job hunting help is being offered to the 60,000 men and women who retire from the Armed Forces each year. The Department of Labor, cooperating with the Veterans Administration and the Department of Defense, offers those retirees looking for a full-time second career a computerized man-job matching service called Program REFERRAL.

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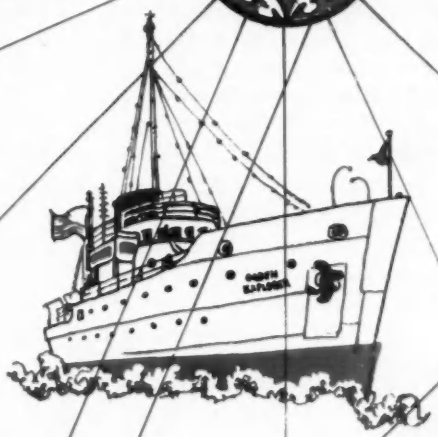
OLD SHIP LAUNCHES NEW LIVES



By Anne Woodward Corrigan

Maps on the wall behind Noyd Tolbert's head trace the oceans' depths. On the desk in front of him, in the U.S. Navy's Deep Ocean Survey Department, Schaum's Algebra lies open to a page of problems.

Tolbert, a graduate of a training program for oceanography and marine science aides funded jointly by the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration and the U.S. Office of Education, analyzes data collected on two cruises he made aboard Navy ocean survey ships. One voyage, on the USNS Kane, took him to the Gulf of Mexico in the fall of 1969. This year he sailed with the USNS Silasbent to Japan.

While aboard ship, Tolbert helps obtain, label, and record information from samples of ocean water and sediment from the ocean floor and assists in taking depth measurements through the use of sound transmission. Once back at the Survey Department office in the Washington, D.C. Navy Yard, he helps prepare for computers water temperature and salt content information and marks depth data on ocean track charts that are the road maps of the sea.

An 11th grade dropout, Tolbert uses much of his spare time to cram for the high school equivalency test he hopes to take soon. He wants to continue his education in the electronics field, then perhaps return to higher level oceanography. He credits his manpower training for a change in his attitude and

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Mrs. Corrigan is a member of the Manpower Administration information staff.

OLD SHIP
continued

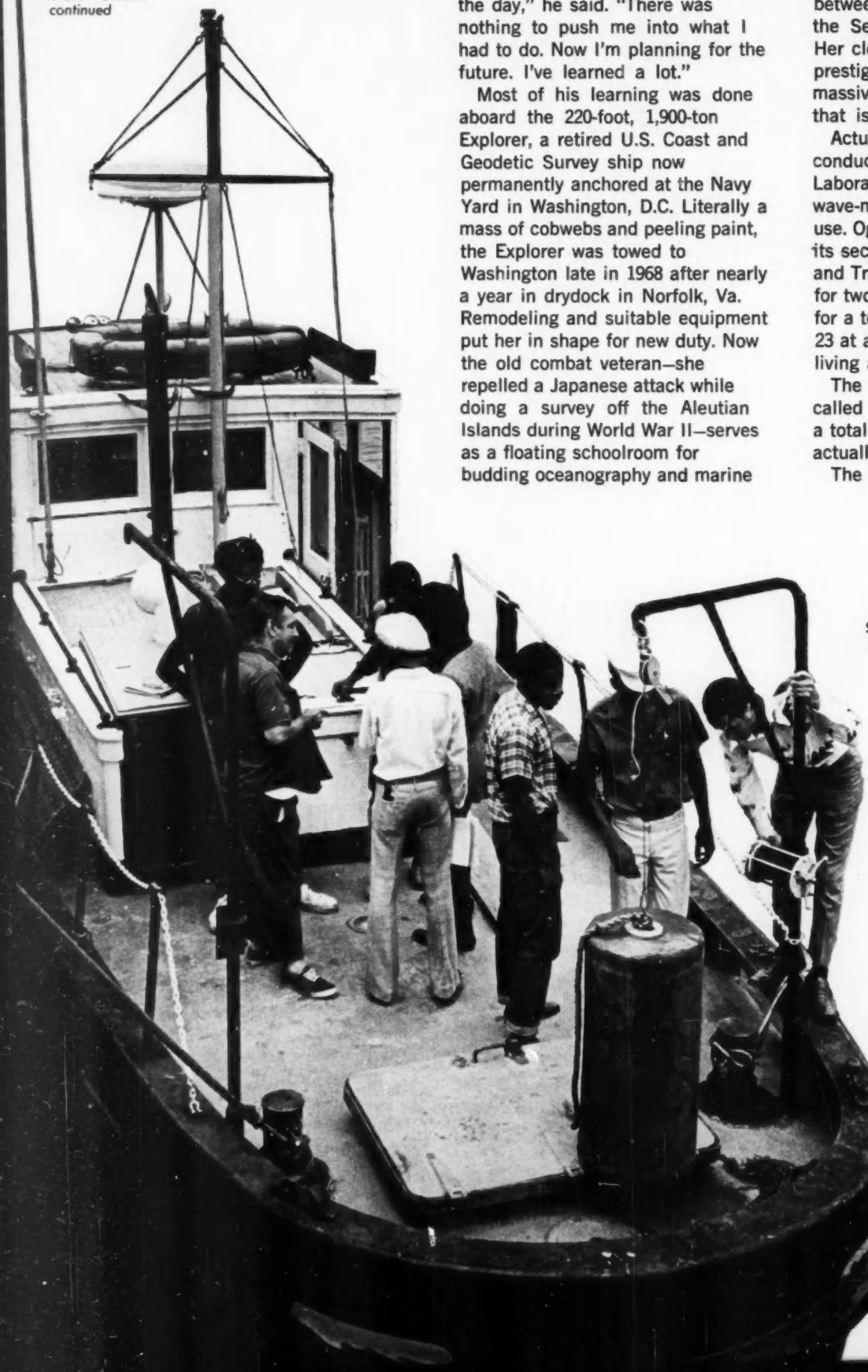
outlook. "I used to live just for the day," he said. "There was nothing to push me into what I had to do. Now I'm planning for the future. I've learned a lot."

Most of his learning was done aboard the 220-foot, 1,900-ton Explorer, a retired U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey ship now permanently anchored at the Navy Yard in Washington, D.C. Literally a mass of cobwebs and peeling paint, the Explorer was towed to Washington late in 1968 after nearly a year in drydock in Norfolk, Va. Remodeling and suitable equipment put her in shape for new duty. Now the old combat veteran—she repelled a Japanese attack while doing a survey off the Aleutian Islands during World War II—serves as a floating schoolroom for budding oceanography and marine science aides. She is moored between the President's yacht and the Secretary of the Navy's yacht. Her closest, though less prestigious, neighbor at present is a massive gray Navy divers' barge that is up for sale.

Actual training on the Explorer is conducted by Ogden Technical Laboratories Inc., which produces wave-making equipment for school use. Ogden now is in the midst of its second Manpower Development and Training Act contract, calling for two identical 20-week courses for a total of 75 trainees aged 18 to 23 at a cost of $323,000, including living allowances for the students.

The first contract, for $306,000, called for two 20-week courses for a total of 120 trainees. Only 108 actually began training, however.

The first two 20-week training



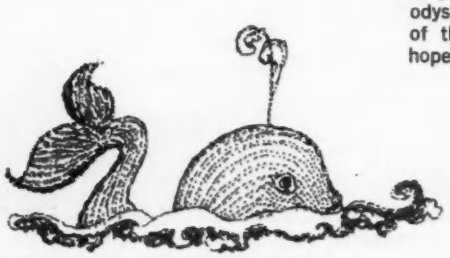
Seamanship instructor James O'Malley holds class aboard Explorer II, one of two tugs that take students into the Chesapeake Bay, where they put classroom theory into practice.

sessions aboard the Explorer constituted a learning process for program officials as well as students. Despite careful recruitment, not all enrollees made it through training or even far into it. All had been unemployed or underemployed before training, and most were disadvantaged. Some had jail records. Many dropped out in the very early stages of training, unable to cope with classrooms of any kind, even in the active informal atmosphere of the Explorer.

Of the 63 who completed the program, almost 50 graduated into training-related jobs or education. A number of the graduates were drafted or enlisted in the armed services.

Officials at the Navy Oceanographic Office, who had advised on the curriculum but made no commitment to hire, had their eyes on the top five graduates of the first class, which completed its training in May 1969. They ended up hiring 21 of the 28 graduates, of whom 10 still work for the Navy, most of them at Oceanographic Office headquarters in Suitland, Md., or at the Navy Yard. They earn an average of $5,200 a year. Of those who left their jobs, five entered the Armed Forces and five took other jobs or enrolled in school.

The second class graduated in January of this year when the Navy was faced with a layoff and could not hire new employees. For a while the cutback even threatened the graduates from the first class who had been hired by the Navy, but their jobs were saved, although some had to move to different positions.



Happily, the District of Columbia Department of Sanitary Engineering picked up 12 graduates of the January 1970 class for jobs in water pollution control, half of whom already have qualified for additional training as sewage treatment plant operators. After this advanced training, they can earn up to nearly $9,000. They are now earning about $6,500.

Says their supervisor at the Department of Sanitary Engineering: "To a man they have stuck with it, despite difficulties of shift work and Sunday work. They have done exceptionally well. Most will make it one way or another."

Three graduates of the second session work at the Fish Protein Concentrate Center at the University of Maryland. Two Vietnam war veterans who completed the course are now studying at the Hydro-Space Technical Institute in Melbourne, Fla., and two other graduates work on ships of the Federal Environmental Sciences Service Administration. By mid-summer, 27 of the 35 January 1970 graduates were employed or attending school.

The District of Columbia Manpower Administration does the bulk of recruiting for the program.

Gary Nicely was on an aimless hitchhiking odyssey around the country when he heard of the Explorer training program. Now he hopes to become a marine science aide.

After being referred to the project, potential trainees are given standard achievement tests to make sure they qualify in basic math, spelling, and reading recognition. Then they are interviewed by a member of the Explorer staff. A second "pressure" interview with four project instructors follows.

Peter Navaretta, who directs the project for Ogden Laboratories, said this weeding out process is necessary because of the relative difficulty of the classroom work. He hopes that in the future the program can be extended so more severely disadvantaged people, now excluded because of academic requirements, can qualify.

Navaretta calls the present class of 26 "exceptional" as far as academic background and aptitude are concerned. Although placement difficulties persist, the project staff feel job opportunities in the

Thaddeus Culbreath leans pensively on the rail of the Explorer during a break in classwork.

OLD SHIP
continued

marine sciences and related fields are improving in government and private industry. Letters soliciting jobs have been sent to government agencies and a variety of private firms and research institutions involved in work for which project graduates might qualify.

Once in the program, all trainees receive two surplus Navy work uniforms. They aren't required to wear the uniforms but most trainees soon learn that Navy clothing saves wear and tear on their own.

Students attend class 40 hours a week. Their work includes field trips in two tugs assigned to the project, the 55-foot all steel Explorer II (formerly W. H. Hutton), and the 35-foot Explorer III (formerly Bluefish). Aboard the tugs, students learn seamanship on excursions into the Chesapeake Bay, where they collect plankton, take measurements, and generally put classroom theories into practice.

Seamanship itself is a new experience for students, whose trips into the Bay usually are their first dip into deep water. In classrooms and dockside, they learn marine safety; parts of the boat; how to start, maneuver, and stop a boat; how to anchor; all about knots, lines, rigging, signals, and sea history; and to sew leather and canvas.

Trainees report to the Explorer at 9 a.m. Classes take 50 minutes each, with 10-minute breaks between. Students punch timecards —an important factor in preventing absenteeism. Their training allowance, which ranges from $45 to $65 a week based on the number of dependents they have, is docked for absenteeism.

The Explorer's four newly air-conditioned classrooms were converted from crew's quarters and galleys. The original port galley is now outfitted as a biology lab with tables, microscopes, water

Almost any part of the ship might be the classroom for seamanship instruction, so John Butler uses the handiest resting place to take notes.

Microscopes and water pollution kits have replaced stoves and sinks in the port galley, now a biology lab where marine biology instructor Toni Ford holds forth on the nature of plankton.

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pollution kits, and various specimens of water life. The starboard galley is used for physics and chemistry. There is a rudimentary machine shop on the main deck, a carpenter shop, library, and laundry below. Students decorate their own lounge to their tastes.

Project Director Navaretta, a former public school teacher, started with the Explorer as an instructor. He taught basic education and marine biology and still takes a turn at the helm of a class when his other duties permit. He got his own basic training in seamanship and things nautical at a Long Island sailing marina owned by his parents.

The three men and one woman who make up the project's full-time academic teaching staff were selected for their ability to relate to disadvantaged youngsters as well as their professional qualifications. The staff also includes a psychologist who serves part time as a counselor and a master of arms who teaches seamanship.

Students who had never met each other before Explorer training soon form fast friendships, according to the staff. They watch each other for flagging interest and report to instructors when a classmate has personal problems or seems to need special counseling. Their graduation party is a big event for them—and members of the first two training classes have already approached their instructors about holding class reunions.

If a reunion were held today, a number of graduates could join Noyd Tolbert in reporting good job progress. Tyrone Morrison, also a high school dropout, now makes close to $9,000 a year working in the Navy Oceanographic Office photography shop. Tyrone Aiken, who recently completed a voyage to Norway on a survey ship, graduated into the Deep Ocean Survey Branch of the Navy's Bathymetry Section. His supervisor describes him as "quiet, punctual, inquisitive, an exceptional person who works more diligently than some professionals," and has recommended him for an "outstanding" rating. As a physical science aide, Aiken, like Tolbert, can rise to a $10,000 salary level from his present pay of about $5,200.

Jim Whittaker, under the tutelage of Dr. Virginia D. Sidwell at the National Center for Fish Protein Concentrate, helps perform experiments incorporating fish protein in bread. He works under her direction 4 days a week and is given 1 day to experiment with techniques on his own. As a lab technician, he earns $5,200. He plans to go back to school to study chemistry. A vocational school graduate, he originally was interested in electronics, but now feels his research with fish protein may take him into the baking industry.

Kenzie Delaine, 20, processes survey data from Oceanographic ships at the Navy Yard. Like Tolbert, he has traveled off the coast of Florida, in the Gulf of Mexico, and to Japan. A high school graduate from Heartsville, S.C., Delaine had worked one summer at the National Bureau of Standards. Now earning $5,200 as a physical science aide, he is taking a correspondence course in navigation, and has added to his manual skills by learning keypunching.

Learning to map the ocean depths has given Delaine and many other project graduates a better chance to map out their own futures. And it has given a new and useful life to an old ship.

When the Explorer was decommissioned in January 1968, the Coast and Geodetic Survey played taps. For trainees who have marched to a new future from her decks, the Explorer represents not taps, but reveille. □

Thanks to their Explorer training, some of Jamie Simmons' predecessors have seen the world. Maybe he will, too.

Sweden's Manpower Policies

a look at the leader

By Eli Ginzberg

There is general agreement among those who have studied the problem that Sweden has led the way in developing new manpower institutions, policies, and programs to improve the use of labor in a dynamic economy. Its Labor Market Board has an annual appropriation of about $500 million; its labor force is less than one-twentieth the size of ours. Even with an elastic definition of manpower programing, our annual Federal manpower appropriation runs under $3 billion, making it, in relative terms, less than one-third that of Sweden's.

If we compare the number of trainees and types of programing, we find that Sweden assists approximately 100,000 persons annually—about 3 percent of its work force. Again, relatively, our adult training programs are operating at about one-third that level. Moreover, Sweden has moved aggressively to expand and improve its system of sheltered workshops for the handicapped and for older workers who cannot cope with the competitive environment. And it has a large-scale public works program, particularly in the North, to provide constructive employment for older workers who cannot be retrained or relocated.

The record is impressive. Sweden has led the way in fashioning an active labor market policy and remains in the lead. But in considering its progress to date, we must also look beneath the surface to learn about the problems that have begun to emerge. As economist Thorstein Veblen pointed out many years ago, it can de dangerous for a country to take the lead; however, those who lag behind can learn from the experience of the leader.

As is true of many other countries, Sweden faces budget difficulties; it has a large balance of payments deficit and high taxes, which together limit its capacity to increase expenditures. There is little prospect therefore that the Labor Market Board will be able to expand its programs in the future as it has in the recent past. Appropriations for 1970-71 were considerably below the budget request and the short-term outlook includes a ceiling at the present level.

This budget limitation should be emphasized. Swedish experts estimate that whenever a firm goes out of business or is nationalized or merged, between 10 and 20 percent of its older workers—men and women over 50 years of age—are not readily absorbed. In fact they are likely to remain permanently unemployed in the competitive market. Moreover, employers not going out of business often seek to discharge older employees who can no longer keep the pace. In a high wage country exposed to foreign competition, the pressure on the employer to control his labor costs is substantial.

The Swedish answer to the problem of the redundant older worker has been a rapid expansion of sheltered workshops. While a social accounting system would probably demonstrate that an annual gross subsidy of about $3,000 per man is not excessive, the short-term burden is considerable. Since the Labor Market Board, despite its efforts and the generous use of funds, has had little success in keeping or even in placing older workers in private employment, it has been forced into the more expensive approach of operating sheltered workshops.

The fact that the Swedish labor force is increasingly composed of older workers adds an element of urgency to this problem. New legislation has dropped the age of retirement for selected groups of workers—miners and forestry workers—from 67 to 63. But this is a palliative, not a solution. This applies also to new extended unemployment insurance which seeks to bridge the gap between the time an older redundant worker loses his job and the time he finds another job or reaches pensionable age. At present and for the near future, Sweden apparently has no effective answer to the challenge of the older worker.

A second problem involves the Labor Market Board policy of moving unemployed workers into areas of high demand and the special challenges presented by the North, which has only 3 percent of Sweden's population but accounts for 25 percent of its total area, 15 percent of the value of its exports, and 10 percent of its unemployment. Swedish leaders have talked about regional development since World War II, but they are only now facing up to the hard choices

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Dr. Ginzberg, professor of economics and director of the Conservation of Human Resources Project at Columbia University, is Chairman of the National Manpower Advisory Committee. This article is based on his experiences as a consultant to a Ford Foundation group which visited Sweden recently on a trip arranged by the Swedish Labor Board.

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involved in designing and carrying out such a policy.

It will take a great amount of money, government effort, and social commitment to stop the decline of the North and to accelerate industrial development there with an aim of broadening its employment potential and correspondingly reducing its unemployment rate. The largest city in the North is Luleä with a population of 60,000. Umeä, several hundred kilometers to the south, has a new university; several hundred kilometers to the north is Kiruna, the center of the iron mines and the seat of recent labor disturbances. Even if the Swedish Government could find the resources required for accelerated regional development, it is unlikely that these three small communities could be transformed into effective growth centers. It may not be impossible but the costs will be high and it is difficult to see at present how they can be met.

Proper Role of Public Works Debated

A third problem on the Nation's manpower agenda is the role of public works. Initially designed to provide seasonal employment primarily for agricultural, forestry, and construction workers, public works have been used increasingly to create jobs for older workers in the North and elsewhere who cannot be absorbed into private employment.

The major projects are road building. The North is far ahead of its planned schedule; roads currently are being constructed that were planned for the late 1970's. Since plants and branch factories can be induced to move to the North only if essential services and some amenities are in place, the unemployed also are being used to speed the erection of hospitals, schools, sport arenas, and similar buildings. But the cost per man comes high. Efficient work requires specialized equipment and expensive materials as well as skilled workers to use them, and skilled workers generally are not found in the ranks of the unemployed. The Labor Market Board would prefer to use its limited funds to retrain a man and fit him into private employment. The attitude of Parliament is reflected in the severe cut it made in the budget request for public works for 1970-71.

Just as the costs of an expanded program of sheltered workshops, regional development, and public works have come under close scrutiny by Swedish authorities, so have the costs and benefits of the keystone of the labor market program —the training and particularly the retraining of the unemployed. The limited data available indicate that 70 percent of the trainees get jobs in fields for which they have been trained and another 20 percent get jobs in related fields, leaving only a small number who fail to find jobs and must be trained anew or recognized to be untrainable.

But much remains illusive. For instance, it appears from what has been said about the problems of older workers that considerable "creaming" goes on in the retraining program, not only with respect to age but also to education and sex. Moreover, most trainees are absorbed by employers who operate in tight labor markets, which raises the question of whether they would have hired these persons even if they had not been trained. And from the viewpoint of social accounting, might the Nation's total training cost not be smaller if employers, with or without government subsidy, undertook the training? Neither these questions nor Sweden's successes alter the basic fact that a modern dynamic economy needs a substantial training effort to keep its labor force employable. They do, however, make us inquire about the preferred structure, scale, selection, and financing of training. And for these critical questions Sweden must still find answers.

A handicapped teacher conducts class in a Swedish school.

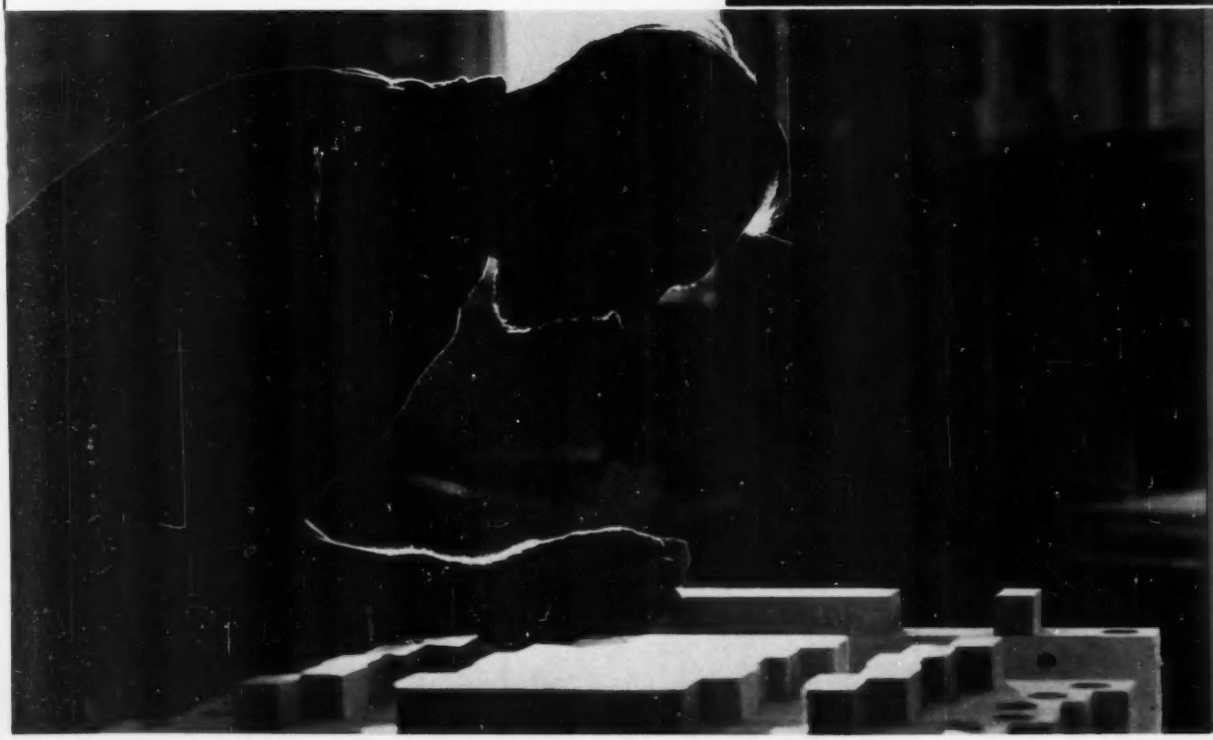
Photos by George Sessler—Stockholm

Sweden continued

Among the questions that arise in the mind of a foreign visitor in seeking guidelines from the Swedish experience is why such relatively little use is made of what is clearly a well-run and attractive employment service. The trade union leadership estimates that only about 20 percent of all job-hunters use the employment service. The Labor Market Board staff's estimate is 30 percent. The mystery deepens when one realizes that private employment services are forbidden in Sweden although a few nonprofit efforts are approved. Employers are, however, permitted to advertise and recruit.

One of the conventional explanations for this apparent anomoly is that the people who need help the most do use the employment service. It is said that virtually 100 percent of trainees and people being relocated use the employment service; about 50 percent of jobseekers in the underdeveloped, job-short North use it; and a high rate of use prevails among those seeking their first job. This explanation may be valid, but one cannot gainsay the impression that the tight labor market is the primary reason for the low overall average rate of use. Many people apparently prefer to seek jobs on their own and succeed in finding them.

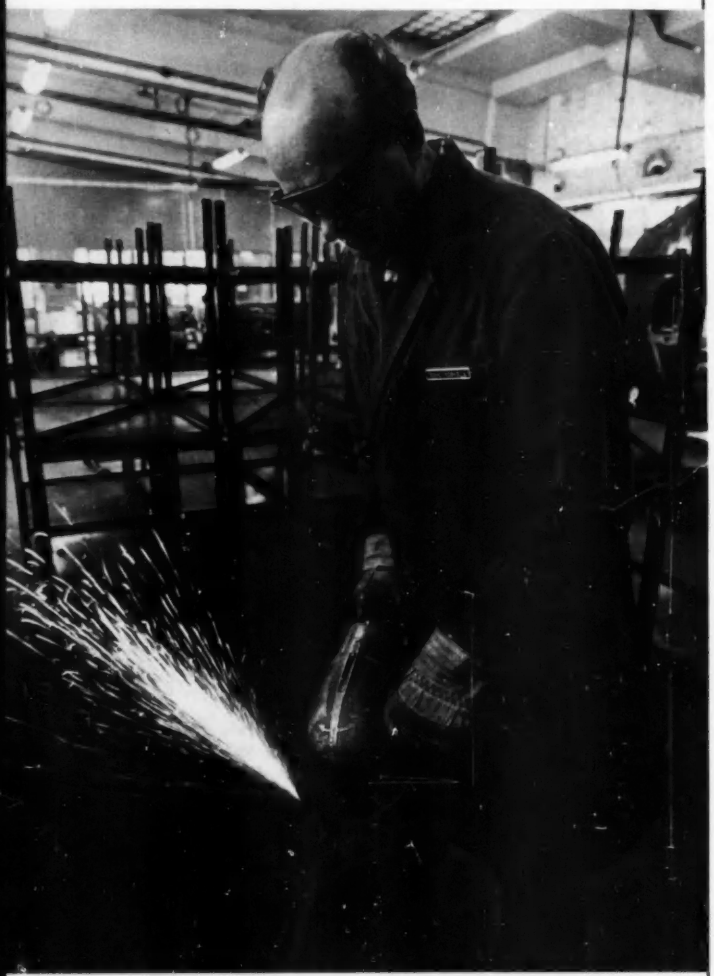
The employment service is experimenting with a self-service operation: Workers are given lists of all vacancies in the country and a separate listing of all jobs in the immediate area, as well as all training courses that are available. Free phone service is available at the exchange (employment service office) and workers are encouraged to call employers for an appointment. Staff help is provided only when it is sought. Presumably, this approach permits the employment service staff to spend more time with the hard-to-employ. But difficulties have surfaced. The staff, no longer in regular contact with



Jobs vary in Sweden's sheltered workshops, but the emphasis is on metalwork, woodwork, textiles, plastics, and papers. Most workshops are operated by counties and municipalities and wages and employment conditions are stipulated by collective bargaining agreements.

the employer, often is unable to convince him to accept a "questionable" applicant. The president of the trade union confederation has complained that the employment service has been too responsive to the needs of employers, too little to the needs of workers.

Another problem area that has just begun to appear relates to discrimination in employment based on sex. The leader-



ship of the trade unions has sought to redefine the issue in terms of persons with low incomes, among whom women loom large. But as the recent tax reform makes clear, the issues go deeper. Before reform of the tax system, husbands and wives had to combine their incomes for tax purposes, which made them subject to steeply progressive rates. That is no longer the case. But women complain about other matters such as the insufficiency of child-care facilities and employers' hiring and promotional policies.

Once again remedial action is likely to come slowly, especially when it depends on costly investments such as would be required for the rapid expansion of child-care facilities. and for all of its bruited liberalism, there is little on the Swedish scene to suggest that traditional male attitudes towards female competitors are any less hostile than in other western countries.

There are two types of foreign workers in Sweden: those from neighboring Nordic countries, particularly Finland, and southern Europeans—Yugoslavs, Greeks, and other nationals. The Nordic countries have a common labor market with reciprocal benefits. Hence a Finnish worker is treated like a Swedish worker. On the other hand, special provisions must be made for "foreign workers." For instance, in addition to obtaining permission to employ them, the employer must provide housing and other prerequisites. There has been trouble at the Volvo plant because Finnish workers resent the special benefits received by foreign workers to which the Finns are not entitled.

Some Swedish employers have been actively recruiting Finns for employment in Sweden while others have begun to move their textile and other labor intensive plants to Finland. The Labor Market Board has held the view that it must seek to improve employment opportunities for Finns. But stresses have begun to appear. Government and trade unions have recently brought pressure on employers to stop the active recruitment of Finnish workers, and the Labor Market Board apparently is less active on the recruitment front. Moreover, it is reminding employers that at least minimum living quarters must be available for their workers.

Tight Housing Limits Worker Relocation

The ability of the Labor Market Board to facilitate the relocation of workers is significantly limited by the tight housing situation that prevails despite the fact that Sweden has been building relatively more flats and houses than any other western country. But the demand for improved housing appears to be insatiable given the substantial and continuing increases in family incomes. Although it would be presumptuous for a foreigner to guess how the government will react after the fall elections to its mounting balance of payments problem, the odds are good that, among other things, it will be forced to dampen the housing boom. If it does, and the economy remains at a high level, the Labor Market Board will face even more difficulties in relocating workers.

In recent years Sweden has experienced substantial increases in real wages and real income, and substantial inflation of consumer prices. A recent report by three leading economists, representatives of employers, trade unions, and the academic world, argued that Sweden can tolerate a rate of money wage increases of 10 percent per annum.

While they enunciated this position before the accelerating deterioration in Sweden's balance of payments position, they noted some dangers on the horizon. They pointed out that the significant gains in productivity were occurring in the manufacturing sector, primarily in industries exposed to international competition. It was this discipline of international competition that permitted them to be relatively unconcerned about the rise in money wages. But they warned that if the leadership in wage increases shifted to the domestic sector, such as government employment or the construction trades, then serious economic dislocations and social consequences could result.

There are further developments on the horizon that should be identified and briefly discussed. Sweden is belatedly

sweden continued

seeking to "democratize" its educational structure by facilitating access to higher education of more young people from low income families. But even in the initial stages of this effort it is experiencing a mismatch between the supply of and demand for educated persons. More unguided students are pursuing courses in the humanities and social sciences than the affluent economy can absorb. And a university graduate, even in socialist Sweden, assumes that he is entitled to a good job with good pay and good career prospects. They resent having to take work below their putative social level or to undergo complementary training to make them more readily employable.

One hears frequent reference to the growing rate of absenteeism. With more and more married women in the labor force, including many mothers of young children, some rise in the rate is to be expected. But other factors also appear to be operative. The one most often cited is the loosening of labor discipline as a direct consequence of a tight labor market over a long period of time. Less attention is paid to the possible shift in the orientation toward work on the part of the younger generation. They are less attracted to a pattern of life that ascribes transcendental importance to work. And the strong bias of the Swedish health system toward in-patient care that is widely accessible may also be responsible for part of the rising absenteeism.

Youngsters of 13 Permitted to Work

Finally, no American can fail to be impressed with the facts that youngsters of 13 are permitted to work part time, under safeguards, and that the employment service helps large numbers of young people find summer jobs. Whatever unsolved manpower problems Sweden must still struggle with, it is a fortunate distance from our situation where the economy tends to reject adolescent workers.

In quick appraisal: Sweden has an impressive number of new manpower institutions that on balance must be adjudged to be contributing significantly to the effectiveness of her economy. Her very success, however, has revealed additional problems to which attention is only now being directed. The most important challenges are:

- Preventing premature ejection of older workers from competitive employment.
- Designing an integrated regional development policy in which short- and long-run objectives are balanced.
- Expanding educational opportunities in a manner that will facilitate the employability of the increased number of graduates.
- Finding the proper level of investment for manpower services in relation to the other investment goals of government and the consumption goals of the public. □

Following is a list of all reports completed during fiscal year 1970 under research contracts and grants from the Office of Research and Development, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor. The listing was taken from MANPOWER RESEARCH PROJECTS THROUGH JUNE 30, 1970, the annual catalog of active and completed research contracts and grants sponsored by the Manpower Administration. Copies of these reports may be obtained from the Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information, Springfield, Va. 22151 for $3 per paper copy and 65 cents per microfiche copy. Send remittance with order directly to the Clearinghouse and specify accession number (PB plus 6-digit number) given in the listing. Sources other than the Clearinghouse are indicated for a few publications.

Research Contracts

A Survey of the Employment Status of Mentally Retarded Adults in New York City, by Dr. Jack Tobias, Ida Alpert, and Dr. Arnold Birenbaum, Association for the Help of Retarded Children, New York Chapter (PB—185574).

The Impact of Technological Change on Manpower and Skill Demand: Case-Study Data and Policy Implications, by Edward R. F. W. Crossman and Stephen Laner, University of California, Berkeley, (PB—191290).

Employer Policies in Changing Labor Market, Report of the San Francisco Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, 1967 by Margaret S. Gordon and Margaret Thal-Larsen, University of California, Berkeley (PB—188051).

A Longitudinal Study of Automated and Non-automated Job Patterns in the Southern California Aerospace Industry, by Paul Prasow and Fred Massarik, University of California, Berkeley (PB—184856).

Men, Money, and Medicine, by Eli Ginzberg, Columbia University (PB—193413).

Career Changers: Professional and Graduate Students After Thirty-Five, by Dale L. Hiestand, Columbia University, Columbia University Press, New York, 1970, 136 South Broadway, Irvington, N.Y. 10533 ($6.50).

State Development Agencies and Employment Expansion, by Alfred S. Eichner, Columbia University, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, P.O. Box 1567, Ann Arbor, Mich. 48106 ($2.25).

The Hard-to-Employ: European Programs, by Beatrice G. Reubens, Columbia University (PB—193414).

The Metropolitan Economy: The Process of Employment Expansion, by Thomas M. Stanback, Jr., and Richard V. Knight, Columbia University, Columbia University Press, New York, 1970, 136 South Broadway, Irvington, N.Y. 10533 ($10.00).

An Exploratory Study of Inter-Organizational Relations, by David Rogers, Cornell Universiity (PB—184-848).

Project Vision, An Experiment With Occupational Needs Projection Techniques for Vocational Education Curriculum Planning Purposes in the Milwaukee, Wisconsin Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area, by William R. Fischer, Wisconsin State Employment Service, for U.S. Training and Employment Service (PB—193301).

Historical Perspective of the Florida Citrus Industry and the Impact of Mechanical Harvesting on the Demand for Labor, by J. Kamal Dow, University of Florida (PB—191289).

Teenage Employment: A Study of Low Income Youth in Houston, Tex., by Joseph E. Champagne and Robert L. Prater, University of Houston and Texas Southern University (PB—186507).

Concepts and Measurements for Manpower and Occupational Analysis, by James G. Scoville, Harvard University (PB—187702).

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R&D Reports

A Study to Develop a Model for Employment Services for the Handicapped, by Greenleigh Associates, Inc. (PB—186151).

Internal Labor Markets and Manpower Analysis, by Peter B. Doeringer and Michael J. Piore, Harvard University (PB—193079).

Urban and Regional Dimensions of Manpower Policy, by Niles M. Hansen, University of Kentucky (PB—186252).

Economic Benefits and Costs of Retraining Courses in Michigan, by Einar Hardin and Michael Borus, Michigan State University (PB—189116).

Fruit and Vegetable Harvest Mechanization, Manpower Implications, by B. F. Cargill and G. E. Rossmiller, Michigan State University, Rural Manpower Report No. 17, Bulletin Office, Agriculture Hall, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Mich. 48823 ($2.50).

A National Attitude Survey of Trainees in Manpower Development and Training Act Institutional Programs, by Gerald Gurin, The University of Michigan (PB—193723).

A Study of Interviewer-Respondent Interaction in the Urban Employment Survey, by Kent H. Marquis and Charles F. Cannel, The University of Michigan (PB—188456).

Transferability of Military-Trained Medical Personnel to the Civilian Sector, by Robert R. Nathan Associates, Inc. (PB—192690).

Rural Worker Adjustment to Urban Life, An Assessment of the Research, by Varden Fuller, National Manpower Policy Task Force, Policy Paper No. 15, Publications Office, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, P.O. Box B-1, Ann Arbor, Mich. 48106 ($2.25).

Discrimination in Employment, An Appraisal of the Research, by Dale L. Hiestand, National Manpower Policy Task Force Paper No. 16, Publications Office, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, P.O. Box B-1, Ann Arbor, Mich. 48106 ($2.00).

Report of Conference of New Manpower Researchers, October 1969, by National Manpower Policy Task Force (PB—187701).

Industry Hiring Requirements and the Employment of Disadvantaged Groups, by Daniel E. Diamond and Hrach Bedrosian, New York University (PB—191278).

New Workers in the Banking Industry: A Minority Report, by R. David Corwin, New York University (PB—192569).

Teenage Unemployment in Two Selected Rural Counties in the South, by Charles H. Rogers, Rudolph D. Artis, Leonard J. Hausman, Christopher Green, and Walter R. Parker, North Carolina State University and North Carolina Agricultural and Technical College (PB—188105).

A Study of the Training of Tool and Die Makers, by Morris A. Horowitz and Irwin L. Herrnstadt, Northeastern University (PB—187558).

The Pre-Retirement Years: A Longitudinal Study of the Labor Market Experience of the Cohort of Men 45-59 Years of Age, Volume 2, by Herbert S. Parnes, Ohio State University Research Foundation (PB—192671).

Dual Careers: A Longitudinal Study of Labor Market Experience of Women, Vol. I, by John R. Shea, Ruth S. Spitz, and Frederick A. Zeller, Ohio State University Research Foundation (PB—193239).

Occupational Training Information System, by Paul V. Braden, Oklahoma State University of Agriculture and Applied Science, Research Foundation (PB—193078).

University Manpower Research Seminar for the Stimulation of Professional Research Interest, by Jacob J. Kaufman and Louis Levine, The Pennsylvania State University (PB—188363).

Educational and Training Adjustments in Selected Apprenticeable Trades, Appendices, by Alfred S. Drew, Purdue Research Foundation, Vol. I (PB—190547), Vol. II—Appendices (PB—190996).

Manpower, Adjustment, and the System, by Marvin Adelson, Joseph Fink, and Harvey M. Adelman, System Development Corporation (PB—192678).

The Border Crossers, People Who Live in Mexico and Work in the United States, by David S. North, TransCentury Corporation. (PB—191692).

Inflation, Unemployment, and Manpower Policy, by Charles C. Holt, The Urban Institute, Washington, D.C., 1970. (PB # unavailable).

Social, Cultural, and Educational Factors Associated with Relative Vocational Success of Navajo High School Graduates, by H. Bruce Bylund, Utah State University (PB—189902).

The Role of Social Reinforcement Parameters in Improving Trainee Task Performance and Self-Image, by Reuben M. Baron and Alan R. Bass, Wayne State University (PB—187700).

A Group Orientation Approach for Facilitating the Work Adjustment of the Hard-Core Unemployed, by Hjalmar Rosen, Wayne State University (PB—188045).

On-the-Job Orientation of Unemployed Negro Skill Center Trainees and Their Supervisors, by Hjalmar Rosen, Wayne State University (PB—192568).

North American Conference on Cost-Benefit Analysis of Manpower Policies, by Gerald G. Somers and J. Kenneth Little, The University of Wisconsin, Industrial Relations Centre, Queens University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada ($5.00).

The Economic Needs of Neighborhood Youth Corps Enrollees, by Leonard H. Goodman and Thelma D. Myint, Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc. (PB—186526).

Employment Contexts and Disadvantaged Workers, by Leonard H. Goodman, Laure M. Sharp, and Jean Ruffin, Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc. (PB—190927).

A Study of Impact and Effectiveness of the Comprehensive Manpower Project of Cleveland (AIM-JOBS), Volume I—Summary, Volume II—Technical Report, Volume III—Appendices, by Melvin E. Allerhand, Frank Friedlander, James E. Malone, Herman Medow, and Marvin Rosenberg, Case Western Reserve University Vol. I (PB—190037); Vol. II (PB—190038); Vol. III (PB—190039).

A Study of Career Ladders and Manpower Development for Non-Management Personnel in the Food Service Industry, by Paul L. Gaurnier and William Fisher, Cornell University (PB—193299).

A Pilot Study in Observational Measurement of Behavioral Factors Associated with Increased Employability of Out-of-School Neighborhood Youth Corps Enrollees, by Richard E. Sykes, with chapters by Popie Mohring, Fraine Whitney, and Duane Wallen, University of Minnesota (PB—189034).

The Frontier of Action: New Careers for the Poor—A Viable Concept, by R. Frank Falk, University of Minnesota (PB—191291).

Municipal Government Efforts to Provide Career Employment Opportunities for the Disadvantaged, by Floyd A. Decker, Andrew B. Horgan, III, and Lawrence A. Williams, National League of Cities (PB—189912).

Final Report on Optimizing the Benefits of Neighborhood Youth Corps Projects for Rural Youth—Phase 2: A Follow-Up Study of 1,144 Young Adults, by Guy H. Miles, William F. Henry, and Ron-

ald N. Taylor, North Star Research and Development Institute (PB—185881).

Disadvantaged Youth Approaching the World of Work: A Study of Neighborhood Youth Corps Enrollees in New York City, by Wallace Mandell, Sheldon Blackman, and Clyde E. Sullivan, Staten Island Mental Health Society (PB—189015).

Doctoral Dissertation Grants

Pre-Apprentice Training for Disadvantaged Youth: A Cost-Benefit Study of Training by Project Build in Washington, D.C., by Markley Roberts, American University (PB 191864).

The Effects of Work Rate Upon Job Satisfaction, by Stephen Wollack, Bowling Green State University (PB 186459).

A Topological Approach to the Relationship Between the Motivation to Work and Job Satisfaction, by Frank J. Landy, Bowling Green State University (PB 185984).

Intertwining Career Patterns of Husbands and Wives in Certain Professions, by Lynda Lytle Holmstrom, Brandeis University (PB 191917).

The Socialization and Training of Psychiatrists, by Donald W. Light, Jr., Brandeis University (PB 190-866).

Sociological Aspects of Self-Employment and Social Welfare Among Chinese, Japanese, and Negroes in Northern, Urban Areas of the U.S., by Ivan Hubert Light, University of California, Berkeley (PB 186415).

A Study of the Older Woman Worker Who Has Attempted to Enter or Re-Enter the White Collar Labor Force Through the Assistance of Community Training Programs in Clerical Occupations, by Dwayne Gene Schram, University of California, Los Angeles (PB 188050).

Short-Term Manpower Projection Methods for Selected Services Industries in the Ventura County Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area, by William H. Lawson, Claremont Graduate School (PB 184793).

Some Unanticipated Effects of Advanced Education on a Critical Professional Manpower Resource, The Inservice Teacher, by Harold Oaklander, Columbia University (PB 190281).

Labor Force Participation and Business Fluctuations: An Analysis by Cyclical Stages, by Thomas Frederick Wilson, Columbia University (PB 191699).

A Study of the Effect of Environmental Change on Human Capital Among Selected Skilled Cubans, by Raul Moncarz, Florida State University (PB 186396).

The Occupational Adjustment of Cuban Refugees in the West New York, New Jersey Area, by Eleanor Meyer Rogg, Fordham University (PB 190553).

Qualifying the Negro for Professional Employment, by Donald Paul Crane, Georgia State University (PB 192150).

An Analysis of the Dynamics of Labor Turnover in United States Industry, by Llad Phillips, Harvard University (PB 191016).

Occupational Requirements for Iowa, 1975, by Catherine A. Palomba, Iowa State University of Science and Technology (PB 193126).

The Impact of Age and Education on the Effectiveness of Training: A Benefit-Cost Analysis, by Samuel Gubins, Johns Hopkins University (PB 190926).

Impact of the Mexican Alien Commuter on the Apparel Industry of El Paso, Texas (A Case Study), by Brian Scott Rungeling, The University of Kentucky Research Foundation (PB 184847).

An Analysis of Youth Labor Force Participation, School Activity, and Employment Rates, by Robert Irving Lerman, Massachusetts Institute of Technology (PB 190463).

The Role of Migration in Labor Market Adjustment, by Vernon Renshaw, Massachusetts Institute of Technology (PB 192149).

The Aftermath of the Bracero: A Study of the Economic Impact on the Agricultural Hired Labor Market of Michigan From the Termination of Public Law 78, by John D. Mason, Michigan State University (PB 184906).

Labor Force Mobility in the Underclass: Opportunities, Subculture, and Training Among Chippewa and Poor White, by Leonard Lieberman, Michigan State University (PB 189288).

The Labor Force Participation of the Urban Poor, by Larry Bruce Sawers, The University of Michigan (PB 186131).

The Socioeconomic Achievement of White Married Males in the United States, 1957-1967, by David Lee Featherman, The University of Michigan (PB 185985).

The Contribution of Education to Economic Growth in the State of Michigan, by John S. Chase, The University of Michigan (PB 188010).

Work Environment, Personal Characteristics, and Obsolescence of Engineers, by Harold G. Kaufman, New York University (PB 192273).

The Short-Run Employment Decision and Overtime Behavior in U.S. Industry, 1966, by Ronald Gordon Ehrenberg, Northwestern University (PB 190138).

Manpower Theory and Policy and the Residual Occupational Elasticity of Substitution, by Bernard Daniel Rostker, Syracuse University (PB 192061).

Family Mobility: An Examination of Factors Affecting Migration, by Alan B. Kirschenbaum, Syracuse University (PB # unavailable).

An Analysis of Rural Manpower Migration Patterns in the South Plains Region of Texas, by Richard C. Stapleton, Texas Technological College (PB 188048).

Managerial Relations With Disadvantaged Work Groups: Supervisory Expectations of the Underprivileged Worker, by Albert S. King, Texas Technological College (PB 190986).

Training Programs of Private Industry in the Greater Cleveland Area, by John L. Iacobelli, The University of Texas (PB 191706).

The Elasticity of Substitution of White for Nonwhite Labor, by Kenneth Edward Galchus, Washington University (PB 192036).

Income and Occupational Differences Between Whites and Nonwhites, by James David Gwartney, University of Washington (PB 191-773).

Beliefs of Industrial Education Teachers Regarding Their Teaching Practices for Preventing Dropouts, by Stig Emil Ralstrom, Wayne State University (PB 184799).

The Nursing Shortage and Public Policy, An Economic Analysis of the Demand for Hospital Nurses in Connecticut, by Barbara Holtz Kehrer, Yale University (PB 192151).

Research Grants

Public Transfer Payments and Labor Force Participation, by William Carter, Joseph Eichenholz, Ellen Maycock, Anita B. Pfaff, and Martin Pfaff, The Institute for Creative Studies (PB 192272).

Federal Training Programs for Dispersed Employment Occupations, by David P. Taylor and Michael J. Piore, Massachusetts Institute of Technology (PB 188675).

Technology, Division of Labor and Alienation From Work, by Jon M. Shepard, Massachusetts Institute of Technology (PB 191258).

Community Organization and the Mobilization of Resources for Manpower Development Programs, by Louis A. Ferman, The University of Michigan and Wayne State University (PB 188780).

The Use of Workmen's Compensation Statistics as a Measure of Underwriter Performance, by Sam B. Barton, North Texas State University (PB 188353).

Ex-Offenders as Small Businessmen: Opportunities and Obstacles, by Leon Jansyn, Eric Kohlhof, Charles Sadowski, and Jackson Toby, Rutgers, The State University (PB 186137).

Past and Present Counseling and Placement Procedures in Private Employment Agencies—An Empirical Study, by Thomas M. Martinez, University of Santa Clara (PB 188-154).

Unemployment Among New Labor Market Entrants, by Melvin W. Reder, Stanford University (PB 190-485).

The Economics of Labor Force Participation, by Dr. T. Aldrich Finegan, Vanderbilt University, Princeton University Press, 41 William St., Princeton, N.J. 08540 ($18.50).

Selected Social and Sociopsychological Characteristics of West Virginians in Their Own State and in Cleveland, Ohio, by John D. Photiadis, West Virginia University (PB 192670).

Private Household Employment in the United States: An Exploratory Project, by David Chaplin, The University of Wisconsin (PB 192689).

Pilot Feasibility Study of Training in Business and Industry, by Gerald G. Somers, The University of Wisconsin (PB 188049).

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